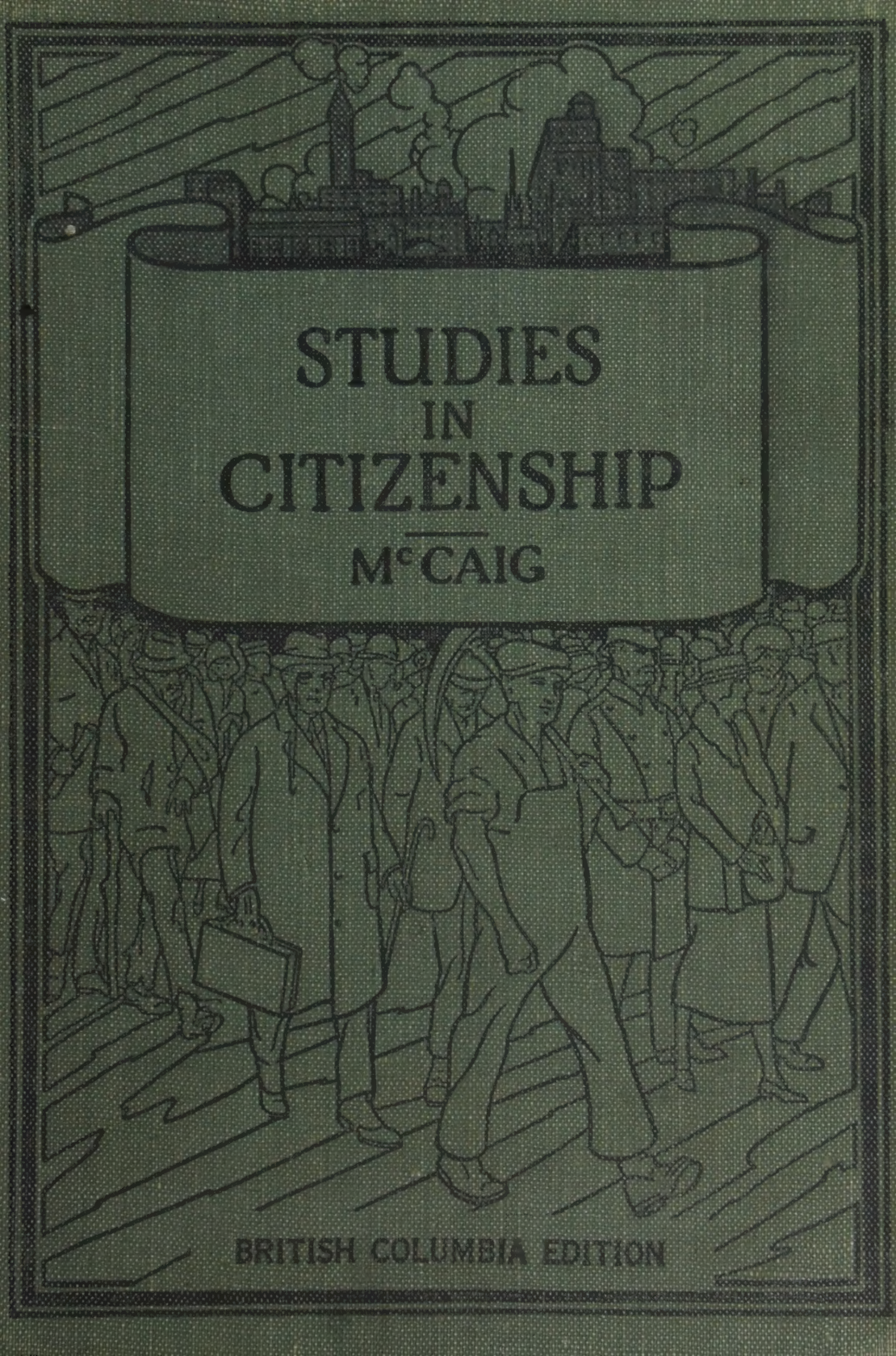
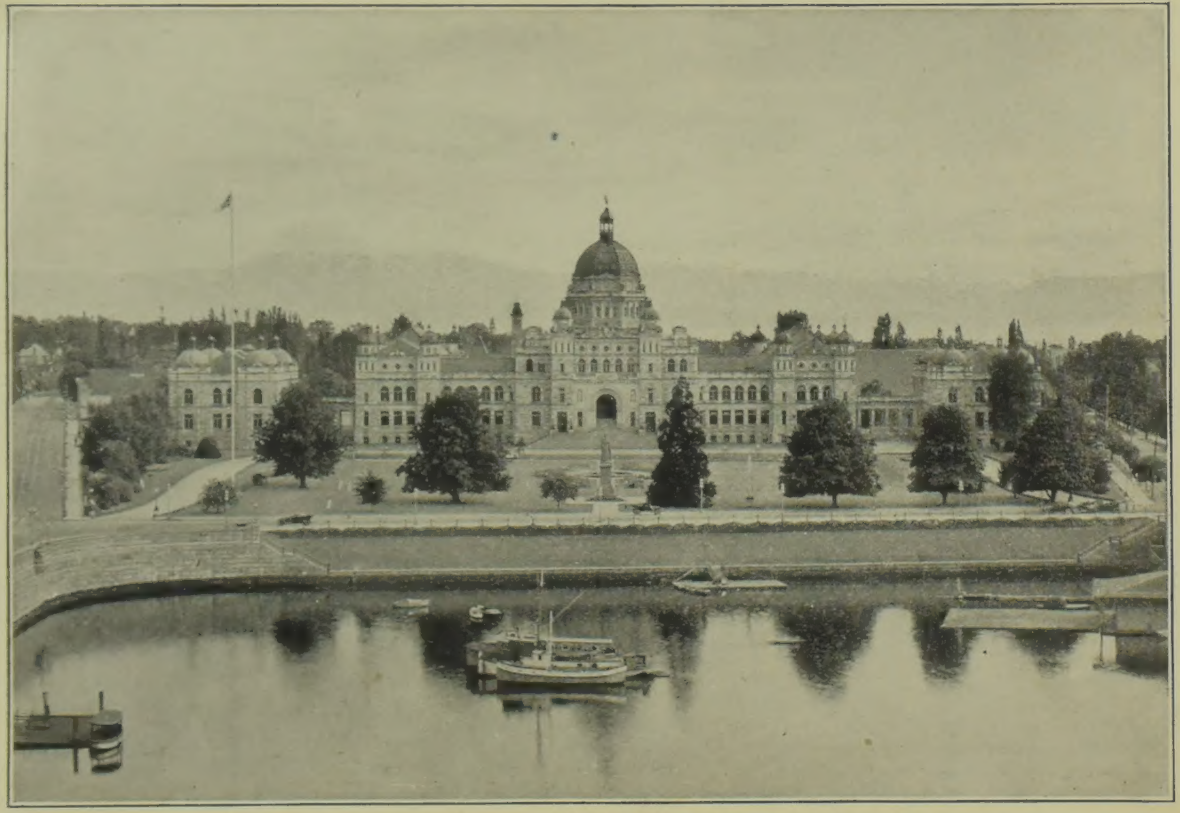

STUDIES
IN
CITIZENSHIP
McCAIG
BRITISH COLUMBIA EDITION

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John R. D. Paton



THE BRITISH COLUMBIA LEGISLATIVE BUILDINGS, VICTORIA

STUDIES IN CITIZENSHIP

BY

JAMES McCAIG, M.A., LL.B.

WITH FOUR CHAPTERS ON BRITISH COLUMBIA

BY

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AUTHORIZED BY THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION
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PREFATORY NOTE

The questions at the end of each section or chapter for the most part cannot be answered directly from the text and are not necessarily to be taken up in class. They are intended to serve as a means of enforcing the information given and to encourage the pupils to gather for themselves further material relating to the topics dealt with in the various chapters. Both the questions and the suggestions, however, provide interesting topics for class discussion.

CONTENTS

PART I.—THE SOCIAL LIFE OF THE COMMUNITY

CHAPTER		PAGE
I.	The Lessons of History	1
II.	Living in Communities	6
III.	Institutions	14
IV.	What Government Does for Us	20
	Section i. Public Health	21
	Section ii. Education	33
	Section iii. Protection of Life and Property	38
	Section iv. Other Activities of Government	45
V.	The Family and Citizenship	53
VI.	The School and Citizenship	58
VII.	The Church and Citizenship	68
VIII.	Other Social Institutions and Citizenship	71

PART II.—THE ECONOMIC LIFE OF THE COMMUNITY

IX.	Wants and their Satisfaction	79
X.	The Extractive Industries	86
XI.	Manufacturing	102
XII.	Trade, Transportation, and Communication	109
XIII.	Capital and Labor	122
XIV.	Finding an Occupation	134

PART III.—THE POLITICAL LIFE OF THE COMMUNITY

CHAPTER		PAGE
XV.	The Government of Canada	147
	Section i. The British System of Government	147
	Section ii. Responsible Government in Canada	151
	Section iii. The Canadian Confederation	155
	Section iv. The Parliament of Canada	163
	Section v. The Cabinet and its Duties	172
	Section vi. The General Election	180
	Section vii. Procedure in Parliament	185
	Section viii. Dominion Revenue and Expenditure	194
	Section ix. Inter-Imperial Relationships	197
XVI.	The Government of British Columbia	202
XVII.	Municipal Government in British Columbia	227
XVIII.	The Administration of Justice in British Columbia	243
XIX.	Education in British Columbia	256
XX.	Taxation in General	268
XXI.	The Rights and Duties of Citizens	274
	Section i. The Rights of the Citizen	274
	Section ii. The Duties of the Citizen	279

Appendix		287
A.	Powers of the Dominion	287
B.	Powers of the Provinces	288
C.	Voting at Dominion Elections	289
D.	Naturalization	291
Index		293

Studies in Citizenship

PART I

THE SOCIAL LIFE OF THE COMMUNITY

CHAPTER I

THE LESSONS OF HISTORY

The Study of the Past.—One of the most fascinating of all our studies is the study of the past. Boys and girls, and even grown-up people, are thrilled by stories of wars and adventures by land and sea, and by the record of the brave deeds and noble actions of the men and women of other days. Of absorbing interest, also, is the story of how people in earlier times fed, clothed, and sheltered themselves, how they governed themselves, and, above all, how they strove to improve the condition both of themselves and of their fellows.

Now, while these stories of the past thrill and interest us, they also teach us valuable lessons which bear directly on our own lives and conduct. They teach us how to depend upon ourselves, how to get along with our neighbors, and how to live better and more wisely. In the lives and in the actions of the really great men and women of history, we have splendid examples of the great virtues—courage, unselfishness, loyalty, patience, and justice. The lives of

such men and women fill us with admiration, and inspire us with the desire to play a similar part in our own world of to-day.

The study of how wise and humane laws and customs have grown up, and of the ceaseless conflict which our ancestors waged in order to win the freedom which we now enjoy, makes us value our privileges more highly. Then, too, by following steadily in the path which led those who have gone before us to success and happiness, we are able to avoid mistakes, and so to make even better the conditions under which we live.

There is yet another lesson which history holds for us, a lesson more important, perhaps, than all the others. One writer expresses it in these words: "History teaches us that in the long run it is well with the good and ill with the bad." Another writer says of history: "It is a voice forever sounding across the centuries the laws of right and wrong." As we follow the history of our own people from the earliest times down to the present, we cannot help being impressed with the thought that we must guide ourselves by our sense of what is right and what is wrong. We must do our best to find out what is right, and then do that right, no matter what the consequences may be. If we fail in this, we shall most assuredly bring disaster upon ourselves and upon others.

Progress. —When we study the lives of our Anglo-Saxon ancestors and compare their way of living with the lives we lead to-day, we see at once that great progress has been made since those far-away times. They had only the bare necessities of life, while we have all the necessities and also many luxuries of which they could not even have dreamed. They spent the greater part of their time in making war; we live at peace with our neighbors and with other peoples, taking up arms only when it seems impossible in honor to

avoid a conflict. They had slaves; we are all free. They had no leisure for and knew nothing of what we call the finer things of life; we have time to study and to enjoy literature, art, and music. They had no schools for their children. Among them the boy or girl, or even the grown-up man or woman, was of little account; the tribe and the interests of the tribe were of much more importance than the welfare of the individual.

As we trace the progress of our own people down through the centuries, we find that the advancement has been slow but continuous. We have already seen how much better off we are than were the Anglo-Saxon invaders of England. If you read Sir Walter Scott's *Ivanhoe*, you will have a very vivid picture of the way in which both the upper classes and the peasants in England lived during the thirteenth century. You will notice that many comforts quite common with us were lacking to even the wealthiest in those days, and that the lot of the peasant was at its best very inferior to that of the modern farmer. Until quite recently, the laws punishing criminals were very severe. Only a hundred years ago men were hanged for stealing property valued at more than five shillings, for appearing disguised on a public road, for cutting down young trees, and for shooting at rabbits which did not belong to them.

Less than a hundred years ago, also, the laboring people in the cities and towns were forced to work under conditions which to-day we would not permit to exist for a moment. The hours of labor were long, and the wages small. Women worked in the dark passages of the mines, deep down in the earth. By chains fastened round their waists they dragged little cars loaded with coal. Six-year-old children were employed in these same mines or in factories, and were often made to toil sixteen hours a day. Up to a much later time, boys were used to clean chimneys. They

worked their way up and down, removing the soot as they went. It is only a very few years since all the people in England were given the opportunity to learn to read and write. When we look about us, we are astonished at the changes for the better that even the last sixty or seventy years have brought.

Now we must not think that the great progress we have made since our Anglo-Saxon forefathers first landed on the shores of Great Britain has been the result of accident. Many men and women in all the ages have labored hard for the advancement of their fellows. They were not always discouraged when not successful in all that they attempted, but were usually content to do what they could during their own lifetime, and to leave a share of the work to those who followed after. The church, too, did a great work in improving the social condition of the people. Unions of workers did much to better the conditions of labor, especially in the factories and the mines, and to increase wages, so that working men and women could live in comfort.

Though we are much better off than our ancestors, much yet remains to be done to make our Dominion a better and a happier place in which to live. As the past of our country influences us every day of our lives, so will the present influence the people who live in Canada during the years to come. It is our duty, then, to find out how we should act from day to day, so that the people about us and those who follow after us will be the better because we have lived. It is one of the purposes of this book to show us how, young as we are, we may in some measure play our part as citizens. Our great, young country has need of our loyal, devoted service. In the words of Rudyard Kipling, let us say, each one and all together:

"Land of our Birth, we pledge to thee
Our love and toil in the years to be;
When we are grown and take our place
As men and women with our race.

"Land of our Birth, our faith, our pride,
For whose dear sake our fathers died;
O Motherland, we pledge to thee,
Head, heart, and hand through the years to be!"

Questions and Suggestions

1. What qualities of citizenship are illustrated in the lives of the following: Achilles, Ulysses, Leonidas, Horatius, Hannibal, Julius Caesar, Moses, Abraham, Joseph, David, Alfred the Great, Simon de Montfort, Cromwell, Shakespeare, Alexander Selkirk, William Pitt, Wolfe, Montcalm, Nelson, Wellington, Kitchener, Gladstone, Lloyd George, Champlain, Dollard, Laura Secord, Madeleine de Verchères, Florence Nightingale, Father Brébeuf, Father Lacombe, John A. Macdonald, and Wilfrid Laurier?

2. What have the following contributed to the progress of the world: Wilberforce, Edison, Graham Bell, Marconi, Watt, George Stephenson, Arkwright, Romilly, Shaftesbury, Eli Whitney, John Wesley, General Booth, and Luther Burbank?

3. From your History of England and other books find out all you can about Magna Carta, the Bill of Rights, and the first Reform Bill. In what respects are these mile-posts in the story of the progress of the British peoples?

4. Find out all you can about the following movements in Great Britain: The Freedom of the Press, Prison Reform, the Abolition of Slavery, the Factory Acts, and Woman Suffrage.

5. Read your History of England and tell the class about the condition of the workers in England—their homes, dress, food, education, occupations, and amusements—in the time of (*a*) Alfred the Great, (*b*) William the Conqueror, (*c*) Richard I, (*d*) Elizabeth, (*e*) Charles II, (*f*) George II, (*g*) George IV. Compare the conditions in each of these periods with those of the present day.

CHAPTER II

LIVING IN COMMUNITIES

Working Together.—Let us suppose that a boy wishes to make a wooden box. He must first procure the necessary materials and tools, boards, nails, screws, hinges, a clasp, a saw, a hammer, a square, and a screw-driver. When the box is finished, he says: "I made this box myself." But did he? In one way it is true that he made the box himself, but is that all the truth?

When we stop to think about it, we see at once that both in the materials and in the tools which he employed, the boy has already had a great deal of help. His boards came from some tree felled perhaps thousands of miles away on the banks of the Restigouche, the Ottawa, or the Skeena. Skilled axemen were employed in making roads into the timber, and in cutting the trees and forming them into logs. Teamsters hauled these logs to the nearest stream to be ready for the spring drive to the lumber mill. There more men sawed and fashioned the logs into lumber. Still more men handled it as it passed by train or boat to a lumber dealer in a village or town hundreds of miles away. There more men unloaded the lumber, hauled it to the yard, and piled it ready for sale. From there, the boy's father put the boards on his wagon and carried them home.

Similarly, the tools and the articles of steel are the product of many hands which dug the iron from the mines, converted it into steel, and made this steel into saws, hammers, screws, and nails. Hundreds more must have taken

part in transporting these materials and placing them upon the market. And all the time, other hundreds were employed in producing food and clothing and in building houses for all those hundreds who were so busily engaged in their own work that they had no time to look after such things for themselves.

So, we can very easily see that even in making such a simple article as a wooden box, the boy received the help of thousands of people scattered all over this continent, and perhaps of still others in distant parts of the world.



TREE-CUTTING
Note the size of the tree and the platform on which the cutters stand.

How Communities grew up.—But people did not always work together in this way. History tells us that our early ancestors, who dwelt in the forests of the British Isles and on the near-by continent, lived in tribes which had little to do with one another except to fight. Without any outside help they procured their own food, by hunting, by gathering nuts and wild fruits, and by a very rude agriculture. They made their own weapons. They clothed themselves in the skins of the animals which they killed. They made homes for themselves in caves or in other natural shelters. They wanted little but food, clothing, shelter, and protection from other tribes. For these things they depended upon themselves alone.

Within the tribe there was a rough division of work. The most marked was that between the men and the women. In addition to preparing the food, the women did almost everything that had to be done about the settlements. The men did little at home. Their duty was to hunt and fight. There was possibly also a division of labor between individuals. For example, a skilled maker of arrows might make them for his fellow huntsmen and warriors. Each one worked for himself, but he also worked for the benefit of the tribe as a whole. By experience *they learned to work together,* and this was the germ of civilization.



ENOCH ARDEN
"A shipwrecked sailor waiting for a sail."

The Social Instinct.— But there was something besides these material needs which held men together in dependence upon one another. There was *the desire for companionship.* This was as strong then as it is now. Young people like to play together, to go to picnics or concerts together, to mingle with their fellows both in work and in play. In fact, most people are very unhappy when they are compelled to live apart from others. Robinson Crusoe was miserable when he found himself alone on his island, cut off from all human

society. You will remember that he wept for joy at his deliverance. This desire for companions is called the *social instinct*. It is that within boys and girls, men and women, which urges them to associate with their kind. Lord Tennyson in *Enoch Arden*, after giving a glowing description of the glories of the tropical island on which the poor sailor was cast away, says:

> "All these he saw; but what he fain had seen
> He could not see, the kindly human face,
> Nor ever hear a kindly voice."

It is true that Robinson Crusoe had his dogs and his parrot, and later he had his negro companion, Friday; but he was wretched, because he had no one of his own race and language with whom he could talk freely and share his interests.

So it is that families naturally settle together or join settlements which have already been formed. These settlements, whether large or small, we call *communities*.

The word "community" is used very often in the study of citizenship, so we should do our best to understand clearly its full meaning. *A community is a body of people living in a more or less definite locality, whether it be a country, a province, a city, a town, a village, a county, a township, a municipality, or a school district, and having, as a result, some common interests, feelings, customs, and laws.*

The Origin of Communities in Canada.—Canada is such a young country that your father or your mother, your grandfather or your grandmother, can probably tell you how the community in which you now live grew up and became a centre. In fact, in some parts of Canada we can see communities growing up under our eyes. Let us see how this happens.

A farmer in Great Britain, in the United States, or in Eastern Canada is not satisfied with the progress he is making, or perhaps he does not see many opportunities for his sons and daughters in the place where he lives. He determines to make for himself a new home on the wide lands of the western prairies. He decides to take up land thirty or forty miles from the nearest railway station, being content to wait until a railway line comes close to his door. He arrives at his new home with his horses and his cattle, his wagons loaded with food, clothing, and implements,



THE FIRST SHELTER ON THE HOMESTEAD

and a tent to shelter himself and his family until a house can be built. In due course, the house is erected, the land is cultivated, and crops are raised. All this time the farmer has had to make frequent trips to the distant village or town to have his horses shod, to sell his grain, and to procure his supplies. His farm is being improved, but as yet he has no neighbors.

Soon another farmer arrives and takes up land near the first settler. Then another farmer comes, and very shortly another, until there are quite a number of farms lying close together. The community is being formed, but the trips to the distant village or town still continue. As the community grows, the necessity for these long trips disappears. A

blacksmith sets up his forge; a general store appears, and the storekeeper is made postmaster. The railway, which has gradually been creeping nearer, at length reaches the place. Elevators are built. The children are growing up, so a school district is formed. The religious needs of the people must be attended to, so a church is erected. A doctor and a lawyer arrive. The community is organized as a village,



A PRAIRIE TOWN IN THE MAKING

and later as a town. A police force and a fire brigade are provided. Pavements are laid, and provision is made for a supply of pure water and for the disposal of sewage. Buildings are erected in which to hold a "fall fair." A hospital and a public library are built. Perhaps land is set aside for a park or a playground for the children. So the community, where only a short time before there was nothing but bare prairie, continues to grow and prosper.

How living in Communities improves People.—Sometimes, from choice or necessity, people live apart from their fellows. Then, instead of improving, they commonly go back. They become careless in their way of living, indifferent about their appearance and dress, and have no ambition other than to obtain food, clothing, and shelter. But when people draw together in groups, they tend to grow better. It is not difficult to see why. In the com-



A CROWDED CITY COMMUNITY

munity we cannot live to ourselves. Our actions affect those around us. What concerns us concerns every other member of the community; what is our welfare is that of our neighbors. Consequently, we learn to avoid selfishness, to consider the rights of others, and to work with our neighbors for the good of the whole group. Each one must play his part.

Further, people in the same community are apt to think and act in the same way. Most people know the differ-

ence between good and bad actions, between sensible and foolish ways of living. People generally choose to act in a way that will do the most good to themselves and to others. They do the things which will win the approval of those with whom they live and work. People are often kept from doing wrong by knowing that their neighbors would condemn their actions. The community has thus an influence for good on each individual, and, as the individual becomes better, the community itself improves.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Consider how many people take part in the making of a loaf of bread, a pair of shoes, a bicycle.

2. Have you read *The Story of Ab* by Stanley Waterloo? It gives an excellent imaginative description of the lives of the earliest inhabitants of the British Isles.

3. Who was the first settler in your neighborhood? Where did he come from? Why did he settle there? Where did he live? How did your community get its name? Are any of the first buildings still standing? What is there about the place in which you live that induced people to settle there?

4. Where was the first school in your settlement located? the first church? Who was the first teacher? the first clergyman? When did the railway first come to your settlement? Where was the first elevator built?

5. Find out all you can about the hunters and trappers of the far North. What kind of lives do they lead? What is there that is attractive in such a life?

6. How far are you responsible personally for the welfare of your community? What have you done to improve your community? What can you do? Mention some things in which you are influenced by your neighbors. If the yards in your community were very untidy and a few of the people began to tidy their yards, what effect would this have? What effect will a tidy, well-planned town have in attracting settlers?

7. Do you have a "Clean-up Day" in your community? at your school?

8. Write a short composition on "The Progress of the Community in which I Live."

CHAPTER III

INSTITUTIONS

The Growth of Needs.—As we have seen, life is much easier for us than it was for our ancestors. We have more food and better food than they had, more clothing and better clothing, and we have much better homes. We have learned to make our farms and our gardens more productive. We raise domestic animals, some of which provide us with food and clothing, while others have been trained to help us in our work and in our play. Many of our products are carried from place to place within our own country, while the products of other countries are brought to Canada to be made into articles for our use. Silks and cottons for our clothing, and such articles of food as oranges, lemons, raisins, bananas, rice, sugar, tea, coffee, and spices, come from all parts of the world. They are brought by many railway systems and large fleets of ocean steamers.

Most of the articles now in daily use are made by machinery. The old-fashioned cradle and the flail, which the farmer made himself, have been displaced by the binder and the threshing-machine, produced in distant factories. We find it hard to realize that the last hundred years have brought to us the steam and the electric railway, the steamship, the telephone, the telegraph, the typewriter, the bicycle, the automobile, the aeroplane, wireless telegraphy, and the radio. We sometimes wonder how our ancestors got along without these things, which to us seem necessities of everyday life.

The bare necessities of life are never enough for us. We seek recreation in sports and games. We turn to those things which appeal to our minds and our finer feelings, to books, music, pictures, statuary, and the stage. We demand fine-looking buildings, clean streets, fine avenues of trees, well-kept parks, and attractive flower beds. As soon as one want is satisfied, a new one arises, and we proceed to satisfy it as best we can. The process of civilization has been



A PUBLIC PARK IN A LARGE CITY

largely the development of new and finer desires and the ability to gratify them. At the same time we have become more and more dependent upon one another to procure the means of satisfying these growing needs. For this purpose we have formed organizations or *institutions*.

Kinds of Institutions.—An institution is simply an association formed for a particular purpose. The family is

one of the oldest and most important institutions of society. The parents of the family provide their children with homes and with a training for right living. Another necessary institution is the school, where children come together to study and to learn to be good citizens. The church is also an institution which all civilized peoples possess. Some of our most necessary institutions are those through which we carry on business. They produce the things which we need to keep us alive, and in health and comfort in our homes. They grow material for food and clothing, dig coal, cut down timber, catch fish, transform raw materials into finished articles, transport them, and buy and sell them for our use. When we say this, we really mean that the people who form these business institutions do all these things by *working in co-operation.*

There are also many other institutions which help to satisfy other and not less important needs. Some of these are literary and scientific associations, agricultural and horticultural societies, athletic clubs, the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, fraternal organizations, boards of trade, and clubs for farm men and women. We have all kinds of organizations of people in the same occupation. Some of these are labor unions and trade and business associations. All the institutions we have named will be dealt with later in this book.

Government. — There is still another institution, which in many respects is the most important of all. It touches all of us very closely during the whole course of our lives. This institution is called *government.* By means of it, the community is able to do for each and all of its members many things which they could not possibly undertake for themselves. Let us see how this is.

A family consisting of father, mother, and several children live in a country district. The parents are wealthy

and can afford to engage a private tutor to educate their children. Near by are several other families, who, although comfortably situated, would find it very difficult to pay for the service of a private teacher. Then, there are several families who are not at all well off, but whose children have the right to an education. In the neighborhood there are also several families with no children. If the boys and girls are **not** educated, they may become a danger, not only to the families in which there are children but also to those in which there are none. What then is to be done? At once you would say that all the families should join together, raise the money, **build** and furnish a schoolhouse, and pay a teacher to look after the education of all the children. This is exactly what they do.



A SECTION OF A LARGE CITY
In these huge buildings thousands of people live during business hours.

From this example we can easily see how the people of a community *working together* can provide many things that each individual could not possibly procure for himself. Each individual could not build the streets, highways, and bridges, the parks and playgrounds, the libraries and

museums, necessary for the convenience and comfort of himself and his family. Each farmer could not drain his land, regardless of all the other lands in the vicinity. Each family could not provide itself with a private policeman and a private fireman to guard its property against theft or fire. Each member of the community could not have a special postal service of his own. So we might multiply examples, but these are enough to show you the necessity of all working together to provide the many things that are necessary for safe, comfortable, and happy living. This working together to accomplish certain things for the benefit of the whole people we call *government*.

Now it is impossible for all citizens to take part in the business of government from day to day. Each is too busy with his own personal affairs, earning a living for himself and his family. All are commonly too scattered to come together. Even if it were possible to arrange such a meeting, there would be endless confusion if all the people should take part. So we have worked out the plan of selecting certain men or women as our *representatives*. If your school wishes to arrange a football game with another school, it does not send the entire team and all others interested to make the arrangements. One person is chosen, probably the captain of the team, who *represents* all the others and acts for them. Any arrangements the representative may make are binding upon all whom he represents. So it is with the representatives whom we choose for our government. They meet together and pass certain laws and regulations in the interests of all the people of the community. These laws and regulations are binding upon us, and we are obliged to obey them. How we select these representatives and what their duties are we shall discuss in later chapters.

Our representatives appoint other men and women,

whose special duty it is to carry on the active work of doing the things that the community needs. We should remember that the persons so appointed are also our representatives. The policeman, the fireman, or the tax collector are just as much our representatives as are the mayor, the councillor, or the school trustee.

You all know that there are many kinds of government in Canada—the government of the school district, of the municipality or county, of the village, town, or city, of the province, of the Dominion—but at present we shall not deal with the particular duties of each or any of these. All we need to remember now is that *one or other of these governments* has to do with all those things which concern the welfare of the community as a whole.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Name ten articles in common use to-day which your father and mother did not have when they were children.
2. Make a list of ten things which you have to-day, which you are certain you cannot possibly do without, if you are to live in comfort.
3. Make as complete a list as you can of the products which we bring from foreign countries for our use.
4. Make a list of the institutions mentioned in this chapter. What is the importance of each? Have you ever talked with any of the people connected with these institutions?
5. Make a list of the business institutions in your community. Who are the important officials in these institutions? What is the nature of their work?
6. Show how the occupation of your father is dependent upon the occupation of your chum's father.
7. Suppose that the members of your community were to decide to have nothing to do with one another, what would be the result? Try to realize what this would mean.
8. Have you ever represented your school in any way? What did you do? How did you act? Did you realize your responsibility? Have you ever been an officer of your school baseball team? your basket-ball team? your school literary society? Did you remember that in this case you were one of the representatives of your fellow pupils?

CHAPTER IV

WHAT GOVERNMENT DOES FOR US

Government and the Individual.—Let us now deal with those things which we do for ourselves *through government*, so that we may understand the advantages which we gain by living together in a community and realize the responsibilities which we bear as citizens.

Before doing so, however, we must fix firmly in our minds what government is and what are our relations to government. We sometimes become impatient with its laws and regulations and feel that our rights as individuals are interfered with. A man may think that he has the right to drive his automobile on the public highways just as fast as he pleases, or he may think that, if a member of his family has scarlet fever, he has the right to go in and out of his home at any time and mingle with other people. But, if he will think for a moment, he will see that others have rights too. If he drives his automobile in a reckless way, he may injure others, and if he should go in and out of his home while some one there has scarlet fever, he is very likely to spread the disease to others. Every citizen has a right to feel and know that he can go along the public highway without danger to himself, and every citizen has the right to protection against dangerous diseases. These are illustrations of how the desires of the individual and the well-being of the community may clash. In every case the individual must yield to the community. The necessity of protecting the well-being of all the members of the com-

munity against the harmful actions of individuals is one of the main reasons for having government. If every citizen were allowed to do as he pleased without any regard for others, the community would soon cease to exist.

Government is simply *ourselves working with all the other members of the community for the common good.* If we have grasped this thought clearly, we will realize that it is our duty to obey all the laws and regulations put into force by government and, as far as lies in our power, to assist government in their enforcement. Only thus can we live happily with others in our community, and can the community itself prosper.

As we have already said, we are not now concerned with the duties of each or any of our various governments. These duties we shall take up later. We must keep in mind that one or other of these governments—Dominion, provincial, or municipal—is responsible for all those things which we are to deal with in this chapter, and all of which affect the community as a whole.

SECTION I. PUBLIC HEALTH

The Importance of Health.—We all know how necessary it is for each of us to have a strong, healthy body. If we are to play our part in life to the best advantage and keep pace with our fellows, we must have good health. We sometimes forget, however, that good health is equally necessary for the community. Just as the individual may fail by reason of ill health, so whole communities, no matter how valuable their natural resources may be, may fall far behind on account of the general unhealthiness and consequent weakness of the people. So, one of the first and most important duties of government is to safe-guard and improve the health of the entire community.

Government does this in various ways. It insists on pure air and plenty of sunshine, on pure water and pure food, and on the proper disposal of sewage and garbage. It bends every effort to prevent the spread of communicable diseases. It furnishes the people with plenty of open spaces, parks, and public playgrounds. It provides hospitals for the treatment of those who are sick and homes for those who through disease are incapable of caring for themselves.

Pure Air.—The first essential to the health of the community is an abundant supply of pure air. If we are constantly breathing impure air, we cannot remain healthy. We all know how uncomfortable and drowsy we become, if we remain for any length of time in a room where the air is foul.



CROWDED TENEMENTS
It is impossible for people to remain healthy in such surroundings.

Of course, in the country, where there is so much fresh air and where the houses are some distance apart, it is very seldom necessary for government to act. But even in country districts, government insists that the schoolhouses shall be properly ventilated, and that there shall be at least two hundred cubic feet of air-space for each pupil. In many cities and towns government limits the number of people who may live in a single room or house. Frequently, too, houses are not allowed to be built until the plans have been approved by an official appointed for the purpose. He pays particular attention to the air supply of the dwelling.

There are strict regulations for the supply of air and light in buildings where people work. Owners of factories, for example, are compelled to provide for their employees ample air-space and plenty of light, and government sends inspectors to these factories to see that its regulations are obeyed. In cities, where there are many factories, mills, and machine shops, regulations are often imposed to prevent, so far as possible, the chimney smoke from spoiling the beauty of the city and injuring the health of the people. Disease has no greater enemies than pure air and sunlight.

Pure Water.—The next essential to the general health is a plentiful supply of pure water. Impure water is a source of danger to the entire community. Many epidemics of dangerous diseases, such as typhoid fever, are caused by the pollution of the water supply of the district, village, town, or city.

The supply of pure water, like that of pure air, is usually not a problem in the country, or even in the small villages. People can procure pure water from the wells, if these wells are not too close to closets or manure and garbage piles, and if the ground around them is high enough to prevent dirty water from running into them. But even there, if government finds that the wells, for any reason, are a danger to the community, it insists on their being closed, and obliges people to procure water elsewhere.

The water in the soil under towns and cities is usually insufficient or too impure for drinking purposes. Therefore, government is compelled, often at great expense, to bring water from lakes, rivers, or springs. But even this water has to be purified. This is done chiefly by filtration.

Filtration beds are generally made of perforated tiles covered with sand and gravel. As the water passes through the sand and gravel, the impurities are held back. Sometimes harmless chemicals are employed to destroy the

impurities. The soil itself is a good natural filter. Very often, water has to be obtained from a pond and is impure. Then, it is a good plan to dig a hole a short distance from the pond and let the water drain through the soil.

When, as very often happens, the water supply of a town or city suddenly becomes polluted, the people are warned and instructed to boil the water before drinking it, for this destroys all harmful germs. In this way an epidemic is avoided.

Pure Food.—Like pure air and pure water, pure food is essential to the health and life of a community. Here also, government has a great responsibility. Some of the most dangerous diseases, such as typhoid fever and tuberculosis, are frequently traced to unclean, impure food. The drinking of infected milk often causes a high death rate among children and even among adults. People on the farms, who produce and handle their own supply, may see that their milk is clean and pure, but people in towns and cities, who buy their milk from a dairy, must depend upon others for its purity. Therefore, they are protected by inspectors, who see that the milk supply is kept up to a standard fixed by government.



A RESERVOIR
The water is pumped into this reservoir and there stored for future use.

The milk supply of the community may easily be made impure by dairymen having unhealthy cows; by dirty, badly lighted, and poorly ventilated barns; by careless

milking; by dirty cans, separators, and other utensils; and by keeping the milk too warm. All dairy cows should be *tuberculin tested*, that is, they should be examined to be certain that they are free from disease. Barns and cows should be kept clean; milkers should have clean hands and clothes; and boiling water should be poured over all utensils



A MODERN SANITARY STABLE

Note the cleanliness of everything connected with this stable. The attendants are provided with white cloaks, caps, and gloves.

used, in order to sterilize them. To keep germs from growing in it, milk should be kept cold, and it should be delivered in covered bottles and not from open cans. Milk that is impure may be purified by heating it to a temperature of 145° Fahrenheit and keeping it at that heat for twenty-five minutes. This is called *pasteurizing* the milk. It

stops the growth of disease germs. To destroy the bacteria which have not yet begun to grow, milk may be *sterilized*, that is, kept at a higher temperature for a longer time than is necessary in pasteurizing.

In cities and towns, stores and markets are inspected to see that the meats, poultry, fish, vegetables, and other foods offered for sale are clean, fresh, and wholesome. Government inspectors also examine animals brought to the abattoirs, or killing sheds. Animals found to be diseased are at once destroyed, so that no tainted meat may reach the public.



GOVERNMENT MEAT INSPECTION

Sometimes, a merchant is so anxious for profit that he adulterates his products. Milk has been watered, burnt bread-crusts have been mixed with ground coffee, and broken peanut shells with breakfast food. These are but simple illustrations of injurious practices for which government provides severe punishments.

Sewage.—A proper system of sewage disposal is absolutely necessary to the health of the community. Sewage is the waste matter from closets, sinks, streets, lanes, and yards. It is usually carried away by running water through pipes laid under the streets. In the past, sewage used to be emptied into rivers and lakes, but we now know that sewage emptied into cold rivers is carried long distances, and may cause epidemics of deadly diseases. Therefore, many towns and cities have constructed sewage disposal beds where they empty their waste matter.

In the country we have no sewage systems, and so the danger of spreading disease is greater than it is in the town or the city. There the individual citizen has a greater responsibility for guarding the general health. Manure piled up near the farm buildings is apt to cause trouble, as heavy rains may carry the impure matter to the wells and to the houses. Manure should be spread on the land, where, under the influence of the sun, air, and rain, it may do good instead of harm. Country closets are often dangerous, because they leak, and because they are infested with flies, the greatest carriers of disease that we have. Therefore, out-door closets should be built over small cement vaults, and flies should be kept out of them and other buildings by screens. Many farm houses, however, now have water systems of their own and can have modern plumbing to carry the sewage from the house.



FRUIT IN SANITARY BASKETS
The baskets containing the fruit are covered with netting as a protection against flies.

In the country, as in the town or city, pools of stagnant water should not be allowed, as they are a constant danger to health. They are the best breeding-grounds for mosquitoes, which, besides being pests, are carriers of disease. It is easy to drain or fill up such pools.

Garbage.—The disposal of garbage is another care of government in its endeavor to protect the health of the public. Garbage is food-waste and scraps. If left to accumulate in cans or pails, or if thrown around loose, it

becomes very offensive; it invites rats, cats, dogs, and flies to visit the back lanes and yards, and so disease may be carried into the houses. Government in towns and cities insists on garbage being burned, or kept in closed cans until it is collected and carried away to dumping grounds, where it is spread out thinly for the sun, air, and rain to keep it from doing harm. Many cities and towns have huge furnaces, or incinerators, in which the garbage is burned.

In country districts, where there is no provision for the regular collection of garbage, all food-waste should be burned, or buried where it will not affect the water supply of the household.



A GARBAGE INCINERATOR

Government in towns and cities also collects rubbish of all kinds, such as old newspapers, waste paper, and tin cans, and also ashes. These are required to be kept separate from the garbage. Great care is taken in the larger towns and cities to keep down the dust on the public streets, for dust is not only an inconvenience to the public but it may also spread disease.

Communicable Diseases.—Much of the disease in a community spreads from sick people. These diseases which are passed from one person to another are called *communicable* or *contagious diseases*. Such are typhoid fever, scarlet fever, scarletina, tuberculosis, small-pox, chicken-pox, measles, mumps, diphtheria, influenza, and whooping-cough.

Therefore, people are required by government to report to an official, known as the *health officer*, every case of a contagious disease. He at once does what he thinks necessary to prevent the spread of the disease. He may, and usually does, *quarantine* the house where the patient lies. To quarantine is to forbid persons to enter or leave the place, so long as there is any danger of the disease being passed on to others. The health officer, or his assistants, may visit schools, hotels, stores, factories, theatres, railway stations, and other public places, to disinfect them, close them, or quarantine them when necessary. In these matters, for the protection of the community, government makes the will of the health officer supreme.

Disease is frequently spread by coughing, sneezing, and spitting. People can assist government in the war against contagious diseases by covering the mouth or nose with a handkerchief, when they cough or sneeze, and by refraining from spitting in public. Spitting is a filthy habit, generally quite unnecessary, and is very offensive. A good citizen will not expose his fellows to danger of infection by spitting in public places. Each citizen can also help the community by reporting at once to the health officer any case of a contagious disease that may come under his notice, and by obeying strictly the government regulations for quarantine, even though it should cause great inconvenience to himself. He can further help greatly by keeping his house or place of business free from waste matter and rubbish, and by having his house and buildings screened against flies and mosquitoes.

Disease is spread also by the common drinking cup and the common towel, for the germs left by one infected person may give his disease to many others who may not know of the danger to which they are being exposed. In most parts of Canada there are now regulations against

the use of the common drinking cup and the common towel in schools, public buildings, railway stations, railway trains, and other places frequented by many people.

Nourishing food, careful bathing, regular exercise, orderly habits, fresh air, and plenty of sleep improve the health of the individual and make him less likely to contract contagious diseases. But there are other means of protection. One of these is the use of *anti-toxins*, preparations which when introduced into the blood make war on disease germs that may be there. These are used chiefly against smallpox, typhoid fever, diphtheria, tetanus, and influenza. Government maintains laboratories for the manufacture of these anti-toxins, and also for the purpose of testing specimens of blood, water, food, etc., to find out if disease is present. It distributes free of charge pamphlets and leaflets giving health information of value to the public.



A SWIMMING POOL

Other Efforts of Government. — In addition to all these, many other things are done to help the people to grow strong and to keep healthy. As we have already noted, fresh air and sunshine are wonderful aids to health; and wholesome play, besides promoting right living, is a great help in the preservation of health. Therefore, we have public provision for parks for rest and recreation, for playgrounds for games and sports, and for bath houses and swimming pools, or for bathing facilities on the shores of near by lakes. But this is mainly in the towns and cities,

where the people have not the advantages of the fields, the trees, the streams, and other wholesome surroundings of country life.

In many parts of Canada both in the rural districts and in the cities and towns, doctors are employed to inspect the pupils in the schools, and nurses are appointed to see that the orders of the doctors are obeyed. Government also protects the health of boys and girls by prohibiting them from going to work before a certain age. In the Province of Ontario, for example, boys and girls under fourteen years of age are not allowed to be employed in any shop or factory during school hours. If they are employed at an earlier age than twelve years, it must be at work out of doors.



A MUNICIPAL HOSPITAL

Health Institutions.—So far, we have spoken of the efforts of government to keep people healthy and to prevent the spread of disease. But once people are ill, they must be cared for. So, government provides hospitals, where those who are poor may receive treatment without expense to themselves, and where those who can afford it pay according to their means. These hospitals, as a general rule, are splendidly equipped and are provided with capable staffs of doctors and nurses. There are also many hospitals equipped and managed by religious bodies and by public-

spirited citizens, but government generally assists them with money grants.

In many cities and towns, government also provides special hospitals for those who are affiicted with contagious diseases. These are called *isolation* hospitals, for their inmates are isolated from the rest of society to prevent the contagion spreading. Many provinces have sanitoriums, where those threatened with tuberculosis may fight under the most favorable conditions the progress of that dreaded disease. Homes are also established by government for children and for grown-up people who are the victims of incurable diseases, and for those who are of unsound mind.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Have you ever visited a large modern factory? Did you notice that it seems to be almost all windows? Why? Did you notice that the air is always fresh? Why should it be kept so?

2. How is your schoolroom ventilated? Your home? Have you any very poor district in your town or city? Have the people living there plenty of light and fresh air? If not, how will this affect their health? Are you careful to open the windows in your room before you go to bed? Why should you do this?

3. How does your community procure its water supply? Have you ever visited a pumping station? What precautions are taken to keep the water pure? How deep are the water-mains laid? Have you ever had an epidemic of disease in your community? What was the cause? Find out all you can about "The Black Death" and "The Great Plague in London." What were the causes of these plagues?

4. Have you ever visited a modern dairy? an abattoir? a public market? a cheese factory? a canning factory? a bakery? What evidences of care for the health of the public did you find?

5. Who is the food inspector in your community? Are the butcher shops and fruit shops in your community screened in such a way as to protect the food from flies and other insects? Have you ever taken part in a campaign against flies?

6. How is sewage disposed of in your community? What might happen if the sewers became blocked? Are there any stagnant pools near your home? Why not have these drained or filled up?

7. How does your community dispose of garbage? of rubbish? of ashes? Is the method in use satisfactory? Could it be improved? Are the streets of your town or city watered regularly? Why should they be?

8. What precautions are taken by your community to prevent the spread of disease? Who is your local health officer? What are his duties? What precautions does your teacher take to prevent disease and its spread? How can you assist? Do you ever spit on the sidewalk? Why should you not do this?

9. If a boy comes to school with measles, how may this affect you? your schoolfellows? your parents? If you know of a case of contagious disease, should you report it? Why? If your brother has scarlet fever, would it be right for you to steal out of the house in order to play with your schoolmates?

10. Have you a public park in your community? a public playground? a public bath house? Describe each of these.

11. What hospitals have you in your community? Have you ever visited any of these? What evidences of care did you note? Did you notice how very clean everything is kept? Why? Does a nurse visit your school? a doctor? Why?

12. Write a short composition on "What our Community does to Promote Good Health," and on "What I can do to Promote the Health of our Community."

SECTION II. EDUCATION

Government and Education.—It is essential to the welfare of our society that its future citizens be properly trained and equipped for all the duties and responsibilities which they will have to face when they become men and women. The family plays a most important part in training boys and girls to be useful citizens. But the parents cannot do it all, and it would often be unwise to let them try. Therefore, government assumes the duty of providing educational opportunities for all the children in the community, and insists that all shall take advantage of these. Parents who do not send their children to the public schools must be prepared to prove that their children are receiving an education at least up to the standard of those schools.

Educational Institutions.—Education in Canada is furnished by three grades of institutions known as the elementary or public schools, the secondary or high schools, and the higher institutions or universities. Sometimes, we use the terms "the public school," "the high school," and "the university" to refer to the buildings themselves, but we also use them to mean the various educational services provided in these buildings.

In the public schools boys and girls are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, geography, literature, composition, hygiene, history, and citizenship. In the high schools most of these subjects are continued, with the addition of science and languages. The university gives courses in arts and science, and also professional training in agriculture, law, medicine, dentistry, pedagogy, forestry, household science, etc., and grants degrees to those who complete their work. The different teaching bodies of a university are called "faculties." Thus, we have the faculty of arts, the faculty of science, the faculty of agriculture, the faculty of medicine, etc., all in one university.

Special Schools.—In addition to these three regular grades of teaching institutions, government generally provides special schools, such as normal schools for the training of teachers, technical schools where boys and girls are trained for special trades, schools for the deaf, for the blind, and for backward pupils, and industrial corrective schools. These industrial corrective schools, or reformatories, are institutions where government sends children who habitually disobey the law, and who need special instruction to make them useful citizens.

Frequently, government provides classes in the evening for grown-up people who are anxious to advance themselves in subjects in which they are specially interested, and for foreigners who desire to become more familiar with the

language of their adopted country. Special short courses for farmers and homemakers are given by the universities. The universities also send lecturers to all parts of the country, who give interesting talks on problems of the particular subjects which they teach. In fact, government seeks to increase the general intelligence of the people by affording educational opportunities as far as possible to every individual in the community.

Public Libraries. —Libraries are built and supported by government for the purpose of enabling the people of the community to continue to educate themselves by reading and study. The reference section of the library is open in the evening, as well as during the day, so that those who wish to read may do so in their leisure time after working hours. In the circulating department are many books which may be borrowed and taken away for a limited time, the borrower being responsible if the books are injured or lost. Many libraries have a "children's room," where books more specially suited to boys and girls may be found. In addition, all our libraries have copies of the leading newspapers and of the more important magazines, to enable people to follow current thought. In charge of the library is a trained librarian, who is always willing to help in choosing books and finding information desired.



A PUBLIC LIBRARY

In many provinces government makes special provision for "Travelling Libraries." These are boxes of books which are sent to rural centres for the benefit of people who are far away from public libraries. These boxes are changed from time to time as the books are distributed and read.



Courtesy of the Toronto Public Library

THE CHILDREN'S ROOM IN A PUBLIC LIBRARY

Sometimes, boys and girls, either from carelessness or a spirit of mischief, soil and deface the books, papers, and magazines in the public library. Sometimes, they even go so far as to tear out from a book or magazine a picture or story that strikes their fancy. This, of course, is wrong, for in doing so they are injuring the other members of the community, who with them are really the owners of these

books and have a right to their use. Boys and girls should be specially careful of books borrowed from the library, and should do all in their power to prevent others from defacing them in any way.

Public Museums.—Government has also established museums, where are preserved collections of beautiful and wonderful relics, and the works of great painters, sculptors, and scientists. These museums have come to be places of study for artists, designers, and authors; and workers in many industries find pleasure and profit in visiting them. Sometimes, teachers take their pupils to museums, that they may all enjoy and profit by the scientific and historical collections, and the specimens of birds, animals, and flowers. Thus, many school studies may be illustrated and the ideas of the pupils may be made much clearer.

Music.—Music has also a distinct educational value. It helps to make us better men and women and, therefore, better citizens. For this reason, government frequently makes money grants to bands, orchestras, choirs, and musical festivals.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Is there a high school near you? Have you ever visited it? What things do you find there that you do not find in your own school?

2. Where is your provincial university situated? Are there any other universities in your province? Do you know people who have attended a university? What did they tell you about the life there?

3. Have you ever visited a school for the deaf or for the blind? You will find it very interesting. Have you a technical school in your community? You should visit this and find out what the pupils are doing. Do you have evening classes in connection with your school? Why? How many people attend? How many grown-up people?

4. Do you often visit your public library? Write a description of it. Do you borrow books from the circulating department? Are you careful how you handle them? Has a Travelling Library ever come to your community? If it has not, would it not be a good idea to ask your

teacher to try to secure one for the use of the people in your neighborhood?

5. Is there a museum in your community? How much time do you spend there? What specially interests you there? Are you careful how you treat the objects in the museum? Have you ever gone there with your teacher? What did you learn?

SECTION III. PROTECTION OF LIFE AND PROPERTY

The Sense of Security.—You will learn from your study of Canadian history that when the French began to take up farms in Canada during the seventeenth century, they settled close together along the banks of the principal rivers. The farms had a small frontage on the river, but stretched back, sometimes for miles. Of course, the convenience of the river for travel and for a water supply was a reason for this method of settlement, but there were other and even stronger reasons.

The country at that time was filled with savage Indians, who, time and again, swooped down upon the settlements, destroyed the crops, burned the buildings, and killed men, women, and children. By settling together they found protection against these raids. When one person raised the alarm, all could gather quickly to defend their homes. Then, if one dwelling caught fire, neighbors were at hand to rush to the rescue. We can imagine, however, that with even these measures of protection, the settlers and their families did not lead very happy, peaceful lives. They had little sense of security for life or property.

We are to-day much more happily situated. We know that our persons are safe from attack, that our property is guarded against theft, and that our homes have protection against fire. Without this confidence, there would be little rest, happiness, or progress among us. That this confidence may continue, government takes many active measures for our protection.

Protection from Fire.—To guard against fire, government requires that buildings must be erected in a certain way and that particular materials must or must not be used. It insists on the destruction of old buildings from which there is a serious risk of fire. In towns and cities it forbids the erection of wooden buildings within certain areas. It provides for the careful inspection of electric wiring in buildings, and for the safe storage of coal-oil, gasoline, and other inflammable materials. It tries to prevent fires in the country by issuing strict regulations for the burning of fire-guards, straw piles, and stubble. In forest regions, also, there are equally strict regulations governing the lighting and the extinguishing of camp fires. Rangers are employed to see that the law is obeyed and to fight fire when it has broken out.

To protect our property when a fire does break out, government provides a force of trained firemen, equipped with the necessary machinery to fight the progress of the flames. Fire-alarm boxes are placed at convenient corners, and there is direct telephone connection with the fire halls. In the country and in small villages, however, where there is little or no government fire-protection, the community must depend on the services of volunteer fire-fighters. There the old "bucket brigade" is still a valuable help in extinguishing the flames.

The citizen may assist in this work of preventing fires by acquainting himself with the location of the fire-alarm box nearest his dwelling and by learning how to turn in an alarm of fire in the most direct manner. He may also assist in many other ways, particularly by being careful in all his actions. It is unfortunately true that most fires are caused by carelessness. Many a disastrous fire has been started by some one heedlessly throwing away a lighted cigarette or cigar, or hot ashes from a pipe.

A new danger has arisen with the wide-spread use of gasoline. A little match lighted near it may quickly cause a great disaster.

Protection of Life and Property.—Government also protects the lives of its citizens. Those who wilfully kill or injure their fellows are severely punished. Traffic on the public streets and highways is carefully regulated to avoid accidents. Automobiles must not exceed a prescribed speed limit and at night must carry lights. All vehicles must observe "the rule of the road," that is, they must keep to the right in passing another vehicle. All public buildings, apartment blocks, factories, etc., must be provided with fire escapes. Certain public buildings, such as theatres and churches, must have emergency exits, and the aisles and passages must be kept clear. In factories and mills, machinery must be so guarded that accidents will be practically impossible except through gross carelessness. All elevators must be inspected regularly to make sure that they are safe for the public. These are only a few of the ways in which government safeguards the life of the people.



A FIRE ESCAPE

Similar protection is given to property. Heavy penalties are dealt out to those who wilfully, by force or stealth, take possession of what does not belong to them, or who damage the property of others.

The Police. To protect life and property, government provides a police force. The police have many and varied

duties. They restrain those who would damage life and property, and arrest those who break the laws. They maintain order in public places, control and direct traffic, enforce the speed laws, restore lost property, furnish information to strangers, locate and look after lost children, assist and protect women and children in dangerous places,



Courtesy of the Toronto Police Department

GUARDING THE CROSSINGS IN A LARGE CITY

give help in case of accidents, assist health officers and firemen in their duties, and see generally that all government rules and regulations are carried out.

Most evil-disposed persons prefer to work in the dark, so that the better a town or city is lighted, the easier it is for the police to prevent crime. Therefore, the police

are assisted by public provision for lighting the streets and public places of towns and cities during the night.

The work of the police is difficult and dangerous. We should do our best to understand it and to help them in every way we can. Many people who would never think of doing damage to private property have no hesitation, for instance, in tearing down shrubbery and destroying flower beds in the public parks, in pulling pickets from the fences around public places, and in scribbling on the walls of public buildings. Carelessness and thoughtlessness are the cause of most damage of this kind. Boys and girls can do much to preserve public property by themselves refraining from injuring it, and by giving all assistance possible to the police in preventing such actions on the part of others.

Government and Law-breakers.—Laws for our guidance would be useless unless government had sure and certain means of enforcing them. We have already explained why it is necessary to the well-being of the community that all should obey the laws. Those who break them are subject to punishment. This punishment is usually a fine or imprisonment, or both; but, for some serious crimes, such as murder and treason, the punishment is death.

In England, only about a hundred years ago, criminals were treated with great harshness. They were poorly fed and kept almost continuously at hard manual labor. Even in Canada, in the early part of the last century, criminals were exposed in public to the laughter and abuse of all passers-by, and were branded with a red-hot iron to mark forever the fact that they had been convicted of a crime. We are now much more sensible and humane in our treatment of law-breakers, but we still believe it necessary to imprison those who break the laws. Therefore, government provides jails and penitentiaries. We

do not admit that once a man has broken the law he will always go on breaking it. Thus, except for rare crimes, this punishment is only for a time. The imprisonment is designed to protect society by providing a warning to other possible criminals, by keeping the criminal who is caught from the possibility of repeating his offence, and by reforming him, so that when released he will turn from his evil ways and be useful rather than harmful to the community. In the penitentiaries particularly, where prisoners are confined for long terms, trades are taught to those who have no training for any particular employment, and time is granted for reading and recreation. Further, a prisoner who shows a willingness to obey without question the rules of the prison may be released long before the term of his sentence has expired.



A ROYAL CANADIAN MOUNTED POLICEMAN

Parole officers, appointed by government, visit the prisons regularly and make close inquiries about each of the prisoners. If a prisoner has behaved himself well, he may be freed on *parole*, that is, on his word of honor to conduct himself as a good citizen. He must, however, report regularly for a certain time to the police in the place where he lives. If he breaks his word, he may be arrested and returned to prison to complete the term to

which he was sentenced. Many provinces now have jail-farms for those who break the law for the first time and who are not guilty of any very serious offence. At these farms, prisoners are employed usually in out-of-door work, and are not treated so strictly as are those in the jails and penitentiaries.

Children who break the laws used to be treated the same as grown-up criminals. But now in most provinces there are special courts to deal with these youthful offenders, that they may be treated more intelligently and not be brought into harmful contact with older and more hardened criminals. For the first offence, this court may give only a warning. If this is unheeded, the child is sent to an institution where he is well cared for, put to school, and commonly set to learn a trade. Older offenders are sent to Industrial Corrective Schools, or reformatories, where similar opportunities are given.

The misdeeds of young people are generally the result of thoughtlessness, idleness, lack of good home training, and bad companionship. The method adopted by government for handling these young law-breakers is simply an attempt to remove the cause of their wrong-doing. The best influences, both religious and educational, are brought to bear upon them, in the hope that they may turn out to be good and useful citizens.

Questions and Suggestions

1. What great fires have you read about? From your History of England find out all you can about the Great Fire in London. What great fires have occurred in Canada?

2. What can you do to lessen the danger from fire in your home? in your school? in your neighborhood?

3. Do you have fire drill in your school? What is the purpose of this drill? Do you know where the fire escapes in your school are? Have you ever noticed the fire escapes in the public buildings and moving

picture theatres which you have visited? Are the aisles and passages in your church wide enough to permit people to escape easily, if the building were to catch fire?

4. Has your community a good water supply for use against fire? Where is the fire alarm box nearest your home? your school? If a fire should break out in your home, what would you do? Have you ever visited a firehall? Describe the apparatus you saw there. Have you ever talked with a fireman about his duties? You will find such a talk very interesting.

5. The next time you walk down a busy street, watch the policeman and note the number of duties he performs within ten minutes. Would you make a good policeman?

6. Injury to public property is called *vandalism.* Do you note any instances of vandalism in your neighborhood? in your town or city? What can you do to stop such practices?

7. Who is the chief of police in your community? the magistrate or justice of the peace? How many policemen have you in your town or city? Do you personally know a detective? What are his duties?

8. How is your community lighted? Is the lighting sufficient for the convenience of the citizens and for protection against evil-doers? How can it be improved?

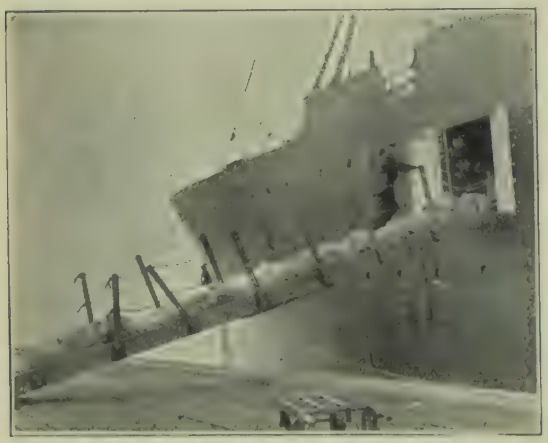
9. Write a short composition on "Protection of Life and Property in our Community."

10. Is there a jail in your community? Where is the penitentiary in your province? Is there a jail-farm in your province? Where is it located? Who is the judge of the Juvenile Court in your city?

SECTION IV. OTHER ACTIVITIES OF GOVERNMENT

Public Works.—We have already spoken of the work of government in the building of sewers, water-works, hospitals, schools, libraries, museums, art galleries, jails, and penitentiaries, and in the lighting and cleaning of the streets. But these are only a few of many governmental activities. Government builds and keeps in repair our sidewalks, streets, highways, and bridges. Some provincial governments have constructed and now operate telephone systems. Many cities, such as Toronto, Edmonton, Calgary, and Regina, own and operate their own

street railways for the convenience of the citizens. The Dominion government owns the largest railway system in Canada, and in connection with this operates telegraph lines and a large fleet of ocean steamers. It has constructed extensive wharves and docks in our large sea-ports and has built huge dry docks for the repair of ships. It has also built up a large canal system and in many parts of the country has developed our abundant water-power, to provide electricity for lighting our homes and for the operation of our factories, mills, and machine shops. All these things are called *public works*. They are done by the public for the public through the machinery of government.



LANDING THE MAIL FROM A STEAMER

The Postal System.—Government also runs our wonderful post office system. By means of street delivery in the larger centres and rural delivery in the country districts, letters, newspapers, and parcels are brought to the door of almost every family in Canada. Even those who live in the remote regions of the north, within the Arctic Circle, have regular deliveries of mail by canoe or dog train. Government employs a small army of men for this postal service—postmasters, clerks, letter carriers, railway mail clerks, and a general staff to supervise the whole system.

This department of government does more than collect and distribute mail. By its money orders and postal notes,

it enables people to send money cheaply and safely almost everywhere. It has also a system of savings banks. It is not necessary to dwell on the importance, or rather the necessity, of boys and girls forming habits of saving. They need to do this, if in later years they are to handle wisely and well the money that they earn. At any time, men and women, through sickness, accident, or other causes, may lose their power to earn money. If they have not been careful to lay by some of their earnings, they may find themselves in a very unfortunate position, dependent for support upon either their relatives or government. To encourage thrift among the people, as well as to provide a safe place for their savings, government has established these post office savings banks which pay reasonable interest on money deposited in them.

National Defence.—In recent years the people of Canada have had bitter experience with war, an experience which they do not wish to repeat. They do not want war; they would gladly see war cease from the earth. But they know that they must be prepared to defend themselves if they are attacked by an enemy, and, therefore, government has organized means of defence.

There is a regular army, but it is only a small force. There is also the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, a semi-military organization employed in police work throughout the country. For the rest, government depends upon the militia regiments and upon volunteers. Every able-bodied man in Canada between the ages of eighteen and forty-five is subject to military duty and may be called upon at any time to join the colors. Militia regiments are raised by voluntary enlistment and are located at various centres throughout the country. They drill regularly, and during the summer generally have ten days or two weeks in camp. There the regiments learn to work

together as a brigade. The Royal Military College at Kingston, Ontario, is for the training of officers.

The vessels of the Canadian navy are few in number and small. They are maintained chiefly for training purposes. They are manned by sailors who enlist for a limited term of years. Naval barracks are maintained at Halifax on the Atlantic and at Esquimault on the Pacific.

Immigration.—After the British conquest of Canada, settlers began to pour into the country, and the tide of immigration has continued to flow ever since. We need settlers, especially those who are interested in farming. But, in spite of the fact that we welcome those who come to us from other lands, we have to be protected against some who might wish to come but who would not make good citizens. Therefore, we have strict government regulations. Government inspectors examine immigrants to see that they are free from disease, that they have sufficient money to give them a fair start in a new country, that they are not likely to become a charge upon the community, that they are not criminals or insane, and that they do not hold opinions that are considered dangerous to law and order.

Those who come from foreign countries to make their homes here are usually quite willing to become citizens of their adopted country. Government provides for this through the issue of *naturalization papers* to those who have the proper qualifications and who apply to be made citizens. The requirements for citizenship and the manner in which it may be obtained are explained in *Appendix F*.

Agriculture.—As agriculture is an industry of first importance in Canada, government devotes much time, energy, and money to its interests, and to improving the conditions under which farmers live and work. It spends large sums of money in experimenting with different kinds

of soil, in improving seed, and in developing new methods of farming. The results of these experiments are published in books, pamphlets, and leaflets, and are sent free of charge to any person who may apply for them. Farmer's Institutes, Women's Institutes, and other organizations established by government, spread the results of the experiments conducted at government farms and stations. To train young people to meet the problems of the farm, government schools of agriculture, which are sometimes also the faculty of a university, are maintained.

Government frequently spends large sums in huge drainage and irrigation schemes, to make more land available for farming. In some provinces, government lends money to farmers to extend their farming operations. Government sometimes assists the farmer to market his crop to the best advantage.

Good roads are of great importance to the farmer in bringing in what he needs and in carrying out what he has to sell. Without them he would be seriously handicapped. So, government expends large sums on the construction of highways through the rural districts.

By regulations and inspection, government helps the farmer to keep down weeds, insects, and other pests injurious to his crops.

Fraud.—It is unfortunately true that in every community there are persons who try to obtain more than their due by taking advantage of the weakness or the trustfulness of others. We have spoken of this in connection with the adulteration and misrepresentation of food, but there are many other ways in which the public may be cheated. Government, therefore, is compelled to enact many laws to protect the public from sharp practices and to punish fraud.

One of the simplest ways in which the public may be cheated is by the use of false weights and measures. To

guard against this, government appoints inspectors to examine the weights and measures used by merchants and others, and to make sure that when a customer buys a yard of cloth he gets thirty-six inches, when he buys a pound of sugar he gets sixteen ounces, and when he buys a gallon of vinegar he gets eight pints. Government fixes the standard and severely punishes those who are found guilty of giving short weight or measure.

In all industries we also find imitations represented as genuine—lace, silk, linen, and other fabrics. Drugs are very frequently adulterated with water. This adds nothing to the cost and increases the quantity, thus enabling the seller to make an undue profit. Seed, special cattle feed, fertilizers, and other things used by farmers are often mixed with useless or even harmful substances. Those who are found guilty of such frauds receive the heavy punishment they deserve.

Government also tries to prevent groups of people from combining to charge unfair prices for articles necessary to the public, such as food, clothing, and fuel. Such practices are unfair, for they would make the public pay more for an article than it is worth and would give the seller a greater profit than is his due. Therefore, government tries to prevent any one person, or group of persons, from obtaining a monopoly of products necessary to the public.

Although government does not always succeed in its efforts, it does what it can to protect people who deposit their money in banks from loss caused by dishonest banking officials. It inspects insurance companies to see that the business is so managed that those who take out policies may be certain that these will be paid when due. Finally, government, through the courts of law, provides for the carrying out of agreements entered into

between two or more parties, so that no one may suffer loss through the failure of another to keep his promises.

Public Morals.—Another important activity of government is the protection of the morals of the community. Harmful books, magazines, and pictures are not allowed to be published in Canada, and their importation from other countries is forbidden. The showing of improper plays in the theatres is prohibited. Censors, appointed by government, inspect all films of moving pictures before they are shown on the screen in public, and either cut out objectionable features or ban the picture entirely. The sale of harmful drugs is prohibited, and the sale of intoxicating liquors is regulated. Children are not allowed to purchase tobacco in any form. Advertising matter on billboards and in newspapers and magazines is carefully examined to prevent the sale or exhibition of anything that may injure the moral tone of the community. Attendance officers are employed to see that all pupils attend school regularly, and so avoid the dangers of idleness. In addition, government has passed strict laws providing for the proper observance of Sunday and forbidding any but the most necessary employment on that day.

Questions and Suggestions

1. What buildings in your community were erected by government? Who owns the telephone system in your province? Who owns the street railway in your city? Find out all you can about the Canadian National Railways. Get all the information you can and then write a short composition on "Our Canadian Canals." Accompany this composition with a map of Canada showing the canals. Is your street lighting system owned by your village, town, or city? If electric power is used, where does it come from?

2. Get all the information you can about our postal system. Write a short composition on "Our Wonderful Canadian Post Office System." Have you ever seen the interior of a railway mail car? Do you know any railway mail clerk? If you do, ask him about his duties. Have

you ever visited your local post-office? What impressed you most about its workings?

3. Have you ever deposited money in a Post Office Savings Bank? Tell the class how you did it. Why should every boy and girl form habits of saving?

4. What militia regiments have their headquarters in your community? Do you know any man who belongs to one of these regiments? Ask him to tell you about the life of a soldier in peace times. Have you a regiment of cavalry or of artillery located in your town or city? Write a short composition on "The Work of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police." Have you ever seen a student of the Royal Military College in uniform? Why should every Canadian be ready to defend his country? Tell the class these reasons in a short speech.

5. Have any settlers come into your community within the last few months? Were any of these from Great Britain or from foreign countries? Could all of them speak the English language? Do you know how many of the foreigners intend to become Canadian citizens? Was your father an immigrant who came to Canada to make his home? Do you realize that all the white people in Canada to-day are either immigrants themselves, or the descendants of immigrants? Why should every resident of Canada be a citizen of this country?

6. Write a composition on "What Government does for Agriculture in our Community." Do not make your composition too short.

7. Who inspects the weights and measures used in your community? How would you find out whether the seed you are using is what it is represented to be? Do you know of any banks in Canada that have failed, with a loss of money to the depositors? Do you know of any failures of insurance companies?

CHAPTER V

THE FAMILY AND CITIZENSHIP

How the Family makes good Citizens.—In Chapter III we spoke of the family as one of the oldest and most important institutions in the community. The family is the very life of the boy or girl. When children are little, they are quite helpless; they take a long time to grow, and, therefore, they need a great deal of care and attention. They must have shelter, food, and clothes. They must be well cared for, so that they may grow up to be strong and healthy men and women. In their early years they learn to talk, to feed themselves, to walk, and to run. As they grow older, they are able to do more for themselves, although they still have to depend on their parents for food, clothing, and shelter. As they grow still older, they take their places in the family circle and share the responsibilities of the home, often contributing to its support.

In the family boys and girls first learn some of the most important lessons of life. Year by year they are taught more and more to depend upon themselves. They learn to keep themselves neat and clean, to bathe regularly, to wash, to comb their hair, to clean their teeth, to brush their clothes, and to polish their shoes. Naturally the father and mother have the welfare of their boys and girls at heart, and know from experience what the children must face when they grow up and go out into the world to live and work with other people. One of the things they insist upon, therefore, in their children is *prompt obedience*, and

children find out early in life that they must do as their parents tell them.

As time goes on, children come to understand the reasons for the demands made and the rules set down in the home. They soon understand that it is not possible for any one member of the family to do just as he pleases, without interfering with the rights of another member or perhaps of all the other members of the family. They learn that there are certain things which they can do to help others, both old and young, and to make the home happy. They learn, too, that there are other things which they cannot do without spoiling the happiness of the home and making others uncomfortable. Finally, they learn that these rules are not meant to bear harshly on any one person in the family; they are to help each one, father, mother, and children, to do his or her part to make the life in the home smooth and pleasant.

In the home, therefore, boys and girls learn to obey and to live and work with the other members of the family for the common good of all. They learn to practise thoughtfulness and unselfishness, and to respect the opinions of others. They learn to be helpful, and to be careful of their own belongings and of the things which belong to the family. They are trained in habits of self-control, truthfulness, honesty, consideration for others, and proper respect for the feeble and the weak. What we call politeness and good manners are the result of this training. All these qualities are the marks of the good citizen, and these the boy or girl should learn in the home. Parents are fully repaid for the love and affection which they shower upon their children, and for the sacrifices they so often make for them, by the pride which they feel in seeing their boys and girls turn out to be useful men and women, successful in all that they undertake.

The happiest homes are those in which all the members of the family work together and have their interests in common. In the evening, they sit around the table and tell of the strange or amusing things that have happened during the day. They brighten the remainder of the evening with songs, games, telling stories, or reading



A PLEASANT HOME SCENE

interesting books. They picnic together; they go to the country together, if they live in the town, or to the town together, if they live in the country. They go to church and to entertainments together. The entire family is united in close bonds of sympathy and affection.

When young People leave Home.—While the boys and girls of the family are at school, they are still under the guidance and control of their father and mother. It is necessary, however, for a great many young people to go to work at the age of fifteen or sixteen. At that critical time they need much advice and encouragement. They are brought face to face with a great many new experiences,

and they need the advice of older and wiser people to guide them in forming right ideas about occupation, conduct, and amusement. They are fortunate indeed, if they can still live at home. There they may receive wise and kindly counsel. Their difficulties are listened to with sympathy, and their efforts praised and encouraged. They know that their parents, who have so carefully watched over their early years, are still interested in their progress and anxious to help them to make a success of their lives.

Government and the Family.—So important is the family in the life of the community that government makes laws for its regulation. The law requires that people should have a license before getting married, and provides for the proper performance of the marriage ceremony. Government also recognizes that the home exists in the first place for the children. Unfortunately, some parents shamefully neglect their duty towards their children. Then, government steps in and removes the children from the charge of such parents, so that in a new home the boy or girl may have an opportunity to grow up to be a useful citizen. Sometimes, also, government takes charge of children whose parents are unable to control them, and places them where they will be under strong and steady discipline in order that they too may have their chance. When the father is dead and the mother and children are left poorly provided for, some of our provincial governments pay a certain sum to the mother each month, so that she may be able to remain at home and look after her children. By actions such as these, government recognizes that the home is one of the strongest factors in making good citizens.

The Importance of the Home.—You will realize from what you have read in this chapter that the home is of vast importance, not only for itself but also for the

community of which it forms a part. Sooner or later the boys and girls growing up within the family circle will leave home to make their way in the world. If they carry into life with them the lessons learned at home, the community will be so much the better. We may say truly: "The better the home-life in the community, the better the community itself will be."

Questions and Suggestions

1. Why is a good home-life essential to the welfare of the community? Many places make a boast of being "a city of homes." What does this mean? Is it something of which they should be proud? May not a family live in a large hotel and yet have a good home-life? Is it necessary to a good home that the parents should be wealthy? Is it advisable that every family should own the house they live in? Why?

2. Make a list of all the important things that children learn in the home. Which of these do you consider to be of most importance? Why? Why is the home a good training for community life? What is meant by the statement that the home is "a school of all the virtues?"

3. What duties do boys and girls owe to their parents? What should the parents do for the boys and girls of the family?

4. What do you think of boys and girls who are polite to strangers and others, and forget their manners when they are at home?

5. Write a short composition on "The Importance of Politeness," showing clearly what politeness really means.

6. When government finds it necessary to remove boys and girls from the charge of their parents, a *Children's Aid Society* usually takes care of them. Have you such a society in your town or city? Who is in charge of it? Find out all you can about its workings.

7. In the text it is stated that some provinces give pensions to mothers who are left poorly provided for, in order that they may be able to remain at home and take care of the children. Have you such a *Mothers' Pension Act* in force in your province?

8. Why does government consider the home to be of such great importance?

9. How does the lesson of "loyalty to the group," which the boy learns in the home, prepare him for the larger duty of "loyalty to country," or patriotism?

CHAPTER VI

THE SCHOOL AND CITIZENSHIP

The Home and the School.—When boys and girls are six or seven years old, they are usually sent to school. The parents see that the children are clean and neat, and they provide them with books, pencils, and all the other things necessary for their work. They see that they attend each day, and that they reach school on time.

Most parents are interested in the life and work of the school. They talk with their children about the new things which they are learning, and in the evenings help them with their studies. They are pleased when their boys and girls learn to do things well. They like to be told by the teacher that the conduct of their children in school is good, and that they are making progress. In these and many other ways the parents and the teachers work together for the good of the children.

Government and the Schools.—As we have seen, all civilized countries have schools which are built and kept at the expense of the public, sometimes at great sacrifice. Communities do the best they can to provide beautiful and useful schools. In general, the buildings are attractive, and are planned to protect the health and provide for the comfort of the children. The classrooms are well lighted and cheerful. Beautiful pictures often adorn the walls, and libraries of interesting and instructive books are not uncommon. The grounds are equipped to help the children in their play. They are planted with trees and flowers and

often have gardens for the use of the pupils. Everything connected with the school and its surroundings is made as pleasant as possible for the children, so far as the means of the community will permit.

Most governments pass laws which require parents to send their children to school until they are fifteen or sixteen, or even eighteen years of age. Since government simply carries out the wishes of the community, the people as a whole must think that schools are very necessary. In fact, the schools require the time and attention of so many people, they cost such large sums of money, and their results are so important, that education is sometimes called the greatest industry of the civilized world.

Why we have Schools.—Why is so much public money spent on schools, and why does government insist that children attend school until they reach a certain age? The principal reason is that the boys and girls of to-day will be the men and women of to-morrow, the citizens, the voters, and the holders of important public positions. Therefore, the children of to-day must be trained to understand their duties and to play their part as citizens. Moreover, those who have received no education may become a menace to the community, for ignorance leads to laziness, poverty, and crime. On the other hand, education makes good citizens by encouraging industry and ambition, by forming good habits, by cultivating the desire to live rightly, and by developing a willingness to work with others. The more intelligent the members of the community are, the better and stronger will its government be.

There is still another reason why we have schools. Boys and girls must be prepared to earn their livelihood, and they should be taught to do this in ways which will be most helpful to the community. In the main, it is true that young people who go to work without the advantage

of a good, general education have to take poorly paid work, and they soon reach the highest wages that they can earn. On the other hand, young people who have taken advantage of the opportunities offered them in the classroom generally start to work at better wages, or salary, and continue to advance more rapidly and for a longer



A LARGE PUBLIC SCHOOL BUILDING

period than less educated workers. So, by providing schools and insisting that the young people should attend them, government gives each one a fair chance to make a success of his life in his chosen work, and at the same time to serve the community well.

What we study in School. One of the first things the school does is to teach us to read, thus opening to us the

whole world of books. We are taught how to read intelligently, so that we may have no difficulty in grasping the thought of the writer. We are given only the best in literature, and thus our taste for good books is formed. We then have it in our power to draw both enjoyment and profit from the works of the great poets, the great dramatists, the great historians, the great story-tellers, and the great humorists, and also from those books which may assist us in our daily work. If, when we leave school, we have learned *what to read* and *how to read*, we have gained something that will be of benefit to us during all the rest of our lives.



A RURAL SCHOOL

We learn to express ourselves by speaking, writing, and drawing. We study grammar, that we may be able to speak and write correctly, and composition, that we may be able to say and write what we mean briefly, clearly, and beautifully. We must learn to spell the words we use, so that we may convey our thoughts clearly when we write. We must know something of numbers, so that we may be able to count, measure, and calculate. Through the study of geography we learn about the great world, and what is going on at home and abroad. Through the study of history we find out about the people of the past, so that we may be guided in the present by their experiences. We

learn from our study of citizenship what are our rights as citizens, and what are our duties towards our fellows. We study hygiene, that we may know how to keep our bodies strong and healthy. We study music and art, even though we may never excel in them, that we may understand and enjoy them.

The things that boys and girls learn in the elementary or public schools are sometimes called the "tools of knowledge," because they help them to make further progress. A teacher can teach her pupils a great many things in six or seven years, but her great aim is to teach them to do things for themselves. "Knowledge is power"—power to think, power to do, power to enjoy, and power to serve.

Training for Citizenship.—When children go to school, they enter a very much larger world than that to which they have been accustomed in the home. But the two worlds are very much the same, and the lessons they have learned in the one are in the other widened, strengthened, and driven home. In the home the boys and girls obey their parents; in the school they obey their teacher. Like the parents at home, the teacher secures obedience, not chiefly through fear of punishment, but by showing the pupils what is fair to all and by encouraging the desire to do what is right. Pupils are taught to think always of the good of the whole class. They are made to see the advantages, both in work and in play, of acting in a way that is best for the group of which they form a part.

Again, pupils are taught to treat each other as equals, and to be polite and courteous towards their fellows. The teacher sets the example by treating all pupils alike. The pupils soon learn that they can live and work together happily only when each one recognizes the rights and the worth of the other.

Further, in school there are certain rules which must be obeyed. These rules are laid down, so that the rights of each and all may be protected. Let us see what this means. One rule is that every one in the classroom must be quiet and orderly while at work. If some are idle and noisy, they disturb the others. So, the right of each pupil



THE INTERIOR OF A RURAL SCHOOL

to carry on his work is endangered unless every pupil obeys the rule. To express this thought in other words, the rights of each one are served through a proper regard for the rights of others. It is the same with all the rules of the school. Their purpose is to enable each one to enjoy his rights without interference from others.

In the school, work is carried on in an orderly, systematic way. Classes open at a definite time and continue for

regular hours. Each pupil is required to be punctual and regular in his attendance. Those who arrive late, disturb all the others. Those who are irregular fall behind in their work. They thereby cause trouble for both the teacher and the pupils. Because the class must work forward as a group, its progress must depend upon each member doing his part. If even one pupil fails to play up, he is a drag upon the rest. This is merely another way of saying that the boy or girl who is unpunctual and irregular in attendance has little consideration for the rights of others.

When pupils grow up, they will frequently find that their personal desires clash with the best interests of the community. The most valuable training for citizenship which the school can give, therefore, is that which helps boys and girls to put the general good before their own selfish preferences. In fact, this is the real meaning of the Golden Rule: "Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them." A sense of justice and fair play is the outcome of such training. We have an intense love for our country, but our lives are precious to us. Is not our patriotism just the feeling which enables us to give up even our lives for the good of our country and of humanity?

At school, pupils are given definite tasks. They must fix their attention on these and bend every effort to their proper completion. The work must be neat and done with care. Thus, in the school we learn to work systematically, or, as we say, to be industrious. At the same time, also, we learn to be patient and persevering, and thus we acquire accuracy and skill. We begin to take an interest and a pleasure in our work, and we have a feeling of satisfaction in bringing it to a successful conclusion. If, when boys and girls leave school, they have formed habits

of neatness, accuracy, perseverance, industry, and interest, they will find that they have acquired qualities which are held in high esteem by all citizens and which will help them throughout life.

Our life and our work in the school impresses upon us continually the necessity for truthfulness in all things, for fair and honest dealings with others and with ourselves. The pupil must present his difficulties frankly, if the teacher is to be able to give the kind of help most needed. It is a great mistake to lead the teacher to believe that we know more than we actually do know. Progress depends upon honesty of purpose and honesty of effort. So, too, in the social and business world, men and women must be able to depend and rely upon one another.

Again, in the schoolroom we recite together, we sing together, and we perform various exercises together. On the school playground, however, even more than in the schoolroom, we are called upon *to do our part as one of a group*. Games and sports furnish recreation of the most wholesome and beneficial kind, refreshing our minds, improving our health, and strengthening our bodies. They develop alertness, resourcefulness, endurance, perseverance, and courage. Above all they teach self-control, which may be defined as "*the desire to do right and the will to keep from doing wrong.*" There is no greater influence for the social and moral development of a boy or girl than taking part in properly conducted games.

All sports and games are carried on according to clear and definite rules. On the playground the spirit of "fair play" dominates everything else. The boy who is tricky, who violates the rules of the game in order to obtain an unfair advantage for himself or his side, is frowned upon by his fellows. Nowhere is "playing the game" better understood than in our Canadian schools. In the team, also,

the best man for the place is chosen, regardless of any other claims. Having made a place, he learns another great lesson of life, namely, that he must forget himself and work with others for the honor of his team and his school. He soon finds out that the best team is the one in which all the players work together like parts of a machine. Later, he finds out that "team work" is just as important and of as much value in life as it is in the school.

So, in the small world of the school, boys and girls learn to live the life of the good citizen, who, while he considers his own welfare and seeks his own good, remembers the rights of others, and realizes that what is best for all is best also for him.

Summary.— Let us now sum up the reasons why so much public money is spent upon schools and why government insists upon every boy and girl receiving a good education:

1. Schools do away with ignorance, idleness, and crime, and, therefore, are necessary to the order, safety, and progress of the community.

2. Schools give every boy and girl in the community a fair chance to start life on an equality with other children, and fit them to take their place and do their part in the world.

3. Schools teach the pupils the necessity for obedience and the great value of self-control.

4. Schools help to implant in the pupils high ideals of life and conduct, a love of justice and fair play, a sense of honor and duty, a desire to live rightly, a wish to work with their fellows for the good of all, and a strong affection for their country.

5. Schools teach the pupils to be punctual, orderly, industrious, thorough, and persevering, and to take a pride in their work.

Questions and Suggestions

1. How does the school differ from the home? How does it resemble the home? What privileges have you at home that you do not have at school? Are there any of the lessons that you have learned at home that you cannot put into practice in the school? Are there any of the lessons that you learn at school that you cannot benefit by in the home?

2. Find out what it costs to maintain your school. How many pupils are in attendance? What is the cost per pupil? Should all the members of the community help to pay for the upkeep of the public schools? Why? Who gives you your education? What should you give in return?

3. Should your parents be allowed to decide whether you should go to school or not? At what age are pupils allowed to stop attendance at school in your province? What is the object of government in raising the age at which children are allowed to leave school? What do the pupils gain by this longer period in school?

4. Is your school building well furnished and attractive? If not, what can you do to improve it?

5. What is the main purpose of establishing public schools? Of what benefit is your school course to you? What do your parents expect you to get from your school course?

6. What subjects do you now study that were not taught in school when your father was a boy? Why have these subjects been added to your course? Ask your mother to tell you about the school that she attended when she was a girl.

7. Make a list of the principal life-lessons that boys and girls learn during the time spent in the public schools. Which do you consider the most important of these? Why?

8. Have you read *Tom Brown's Schooldays* by Thomas Hughes? It tells the story of a boy's life at one of the great Public Schools of England and shows how he grew to strong manhood through his experiences there.

9. Have you read *The Torch of Life* by Sir Henry Newbolt? What is the great lesson taught by this poem? Can you apply it to yourself and to your school?

10. What does your school do in the way of encouraging sports and games among the pupils? Have you a football team, or a basketball team? Write a short composition on "The Importance of Sports and Games in School Life."

CHAPTER VII

THE CHURCH AND CITIZENSHIP

A social Institution.—The great purpose of the church is to minister to the spiritual needs of the people. It would be out of place to discuss this here. We are concerned with the problems of citizenship and will, therefore, consider the church only as a great social institution, that is, as an institution which benefits our society and makes better citizens.

The Church in the Past.—Nothing has played a larger part in the growth of our civilization than the church. It developed those fine ideals of right living which make the best of our society to-day. It has done great practical work too. Many of the most important activities of government to-day were performed by the church before modern governments grew. It fostered the family, and it provided schools when there were none. It built and maintained the only hospitals, and it was the only institution to rescue those in distress and correct those who had done wrong.

The Church To-day.—To-day the church is split up into a large number of religious denominations, sects, or creeds, with varying forms of belief, worship, and government. Though each of these is called a church, we also use the word to cover them all. This is well, for they are all making towards the same goal, and, though they are following different paths, these are often nearer together than we realize. They all believe in God and worship

Him, and they all, by their teaching and example, help people to live better lives.

As in the past, the church is a powerful influence in the formation of character. It teaches honesty, truthfulness, and purity of living. It develops the spirit of self-sacrifice and service, and it insists on the brotherhood of man. It is ever encouraging those who desire to do right and restraining those who are inclined to do wrong. Besides its regular services, it has many special organizations for particular tasks. It is doing a tremendous work in improving the moral and social conditions of society. It is always striving to secure legislation for the moral advancement of the people. It is the great comforter of those in sorrow and the great friend of the poor who are sick or in dire distress. It commonly provides sport and recreation for its young people, and generally it looks after the social needs of its members. In many places, it is the real social centre of the community. Through its home and foreign missions, it is a great civilizing force.



A BEAUTIFUL CHURCH BUILDING

Broadly speaking, the wholesome respect for law and order, which holds our society firmly together, is greatly due to the powerful influence of the church in the past and in the present.

Questions and Suggestions

1. To what religious denomination do you belong? What church do you attend? Who is the clergyman in charge? How long has he been in charge? Describe the exterior of your church. Describe the interior of your church. Are the churches in your community beautiful in appearance? Do they add to the attractiveness of the community?

2. How many churches are there in your community? How many of each denomination? In some places different denominations are joining together and establishing a *Community Church*. Have you such a church in your community? What are the advantages in having a Community Church?

3. Has government any control over the churches in Canada? Do you know any countries where government controls the churches, either in whole or in part? Do churches in Canada pay taxes? Why not?

4. Do you attend Sunday School? How many are there in your class? Who is your Sunday School teacher? To what use is your offering put? Do you have a picnic in connection with your school? When and where is it usually held?

5. What work does your church do among the poor? In your Sunday School do you take baskets of good things at Christmas to children whose parents are unable to provide these things for them?

6. Is your church a social centre? What does it do to provide wholesome amusement for its members, young and old? Do you have concerts and entertainments in your church? Have you clubs for boys and girls? Do you have friendly games with the boys and girls from other churches? Have you a Canadian Girls in Training group in connection with your Sunday School? Have you a Trail Ranger or a Tuxis group for the boys?

7. Is there a Mission Band in your Sunday School? Do you belong to it? Some Sunday Schools support a missionary in a foreign land. Does your Sunday School support such a missionary?

8. Suppose that all the churches in your community were abolished, what effect would this have on your community?

9. From your History of Canada find out all you can about Fathers Brébeuf, Daniel, and Lalement. Find out all you can about the pioneer missionaries in your settlement. Who were the great early missionaries in your province? Find out all you can about the difficulties they faced, and the dangers they encountered.

CHAPTER VIII

OTHER SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS AND CITIZENSHIP

Welfare Associations.—Canada is a young country, but young as it is, we have a great many people who, for one reason or other, are dependent upon the community to help them in their need. This is specially true in our towns and cities, where people gather in large numbers. Think for a moment of the young children who are left helpless by the death of their parents; of the crippled children whose parents are not able to give them the care they need; of the elderly people who have no means of support when their working days are over; of the people suffering from tuberculosis, who are unable to pay for the only treatment that will restore them to health; and of the people who want work but cannot find it. After you have thought of all these people, and many others in a similar position, you will easily understand why there is such a large field of work for those who are willing to do their part in helping others who are unable to help themselves.

It is true, as we have already seen, that government does much work of this nature, but there is a great deal government does not and cannot do. Accordingly, most of the welfare work among the poor, the suffering, and the dependent is left to organizations of citizens, both men and women, who give of their time and money to aid their unfortunate fellow citizens. There is seldom any difficulty in raising money for work of this kind, for people are generous when they hear of human suffering.

Wealthy men give largely of their means, and even those who have little give of that little to help those who are less fortunate than themselves.

The welfare institutions which make the strongest appeal, perhaps, are those that are engaged in looking after helpless and crippled children. Many of the churches support Orphans' Homes, where fatherless and motherless children are carefully tended. As soon as possible they are placed in families where they have the advantage of a good education and a chance to become useful citizens. Almost every city has a home for crippled children, while in many centres there are day nurseries, where mothers may leave their children while they themselves are at work. Other voluntary organizations house and care for helpless old people.



NURSING A SICK CHILD
The nurse here shown belongs to the Victorian Order of Nurses.

The training of the blind for suitable occupations is another form of welfare work which makes a strong appeal to the public. Though there are government schools for blind children, there are none for adults. These are cared for by a voluntary organization, the Canadian National Institute for the Blind, which is doing a wonderful work throughout the whole of Canada.

Though government, as we have seen, watches over the health of the people, there are many necessary things which it cannot do. These are undertaken by various institutions supported by voluntary contributions. Some-

times they are also aided by money grants from government. One of the most important of these institutions is the Red Cross Society. It is assisted by the Junior Red Cross Society, which works particularly among the younger boys and girls. Then there is the Victorian Order of Nurses. These nurses go from house to house helping those who are sick and in need of assistance. In addition, there are sanitoriums for tubercular patients and many hospitals for others who are sick.

So we might continue the tale of how those who are more fortunate are caring for their less fortunate fellow-citizens, but enough has been said to impress upon us the necessity for such welfare institutions, and the duty that lies upon each one of us to support them. Welfare work does not consist in feeding lazy people or in assisting those who do not deserve aid. It tries to help those who are willing to work, and it has boundless sympathy for those who are not in a position to help themselves.

Other Associations and Social Service.—Various organizations have been established to help the young in many ways. The Boy Scouts, the Girl Guides, the Canadian Girls in Training, Tuxis, and Trail Ranger groups bring boys and girls into the open air, teach them to do by doing, and impress upon them in every way the duties of good citizens. Boys and girls also find encouragement and assistance in the Big Brother and the Big Sister movements. The Young Men's and the Young Women's Christian Associations are strong factors in cultivating healthy bodies and spirits. They also do actual welfare work, assisting the sick and distressed.

Many other associations which have not been formed solely for that purpose do valuable social work. The Rotary, Kiwanis, Gyro, and Lions Clubs are each a fine example of this. The aim of the Daughters of the Empire

is chiefly educational and patriotic, but they are also engaged in the fight against tuberculosis. The Canadian Clubs and the Empire Clubs, though they exist for the political education of the people, also take an interest in social work.



BOY SCOUTS
These Boy Scouts are setting up houses for the birds.

Very important also are the *Fraternal Societies.* The word "fraternal" means "brotherly," and from this you may understand the nature of these institutions. They are somewhat like the church, but their aim is not purely religious, and generally they are not connected with any religious body. Like the church, they have a "ritual," or religious ceremony, to stimulate and direct the lives of their members. They try to be brotherly by assisting and encouraging those members who are poor or in sorrow. Many such societies maintain homes for the orphans of deceased members and also for aged and infirm members. Some, but not all of them, act as insurance companies, that

is, they protect the family of a member by insurance against his sickness or death. The Masons, the Oddfellows, the Foresters, the Knights of Pythias, the Orangemen, and the Knights of Columbus are some of these associations.

When we think of all these associations, we are at once struck by one of the fine features of our society. It is the way in which men and women, who differ from one another on many important questions, work together in all kinds of social service.

Educational Institutions. — Everywhere people are becoming more and more interested in education, because they realize that the more intelligent they are, the better are their opportunities to make a success of life. We have already referred to the efforts of government to help people along in their chosen occupations. But, apart from government, there are many institutions which devote themselves to providing special training for those who wish to fit themselves for a particular vocation, or who wish to advance themselves in their own occupation. The best examples of these are the business colleges, so widely scattered over Canada. The business colleges train young people for business careers. They teach shorthand, typewriting, book-keeping, and other subjects which fit boys and girls to take up office work in business and industrial concerns. Many, however, provide their students with courses looking towards more important positions, such as those of a chartered accountant, a private secretary, or an office manager.

There are also many institutions that give instruction by correspondence. They prepare students for a definite examination, such as university matriculation, or train them for some particular occupation, such as engineering, accountancy, or salesmanship.

The Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association also provide education for young people after they leave school. They give definite instruction for particular purposes, and often arrange courses of popular lectures for the benefit of the people.

Aesthetic Associations.—People often form associations, societies, or clubs for cultural purposes, that is, with the aim of improving themselves through the discussion and common enjoyment of the arts, such as music, painting, literature, and the drama. These are called *Aesthetic Associations.* Examples of such are the various Authors' Clubs, Arts and Letters Clubs, Musical Clubs, and Literary and Dramatic Societies.

In many places, people gather just for the pleasure of singing together. This is *community singing.* Its benefits are lasting and of great importance to citizenship. It affords relaxation for both old and young; it creates among the singers a feeling of sympathy arising from the enjoyment of a common pleasure; it enables them to express their deepest feelings, whether of joy or sorrow; it arouses their better natures and tends to soften whatever roughness there may be in their dispositions; and it gives them the opportunity to get something from life which they could otherwise not enjoy.

People in all times have expressed their thoughts and feelings through the various arts. It is a natural instinct, common to most boys and girls, and even to older people. This instinct should be encouraged, for it is one of the best ways to gain an appreciation of art. Few people can ever become great painters or sculptors, or great authors, dramatists, or musicians, for this requires rare natural ability, great patience, and much time. All, however, can be taught to understand and enjoy the wonderful things produced by the masters. Like all the other finer

pleasures of life, this is one which cannot be bought with money. It can be won only by self-improvement.

Athletic Associations.—If you will glance at your newspaper, you will be struck at once with the large amount of space devoted to the reports of sports and games. Young people now are very much interested in and occupied with athletics of all kinds. Clean, wholesome sport is an excellent training for citizenship and a great help in keeping the body strong and healthy. The family, the school, and



A TROOP OF GIRL GUIDES READY FOR A RELAY RACE

the church all encourage young people to devote a reasonable part of their leisure to sports and games. Government, too, does its part in providing playgrounds and athletic fields in our cities and towns.

Most sport is carried on by means of clubs, or associations, some of which have a very large membership. There are hockey, skating, curling, lacrosse, football, baseball, basketball, cricket, rowing, golf, tennis, and many other kinds of clubs. Some of our sports are particularly for

young people, while others are shared by both old and young. A feature of our modern sport is the inter-club contests. These add much to the pleasure of the game, and, when properly conducted, are undoubtedly of great benefit. In some sports, contests are held to determine the championship of the city or district, of the province, and even of the whole Dominion.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Make a list of the welfare institutions in your community. By whom are they managed?
2. What institution in your community looks after children whose parents are dead or who have deserted them? What institution looks after crippled children? men and women afflicted with incurable diseases? men and women out of work?
3. Have you a Big Brother and a Big Sister Association in your community? Find out what work they do.
4. Are you a member of the Junior Red Cross? What work does it do in your community? Find out what you can about the Victorian Order of Nurses.
5. Have you a branch of the Salvation Army in your community? Find out all you can about its work.
6. How does your community help unfortunate people to help themselves?
7. Make a list of the Fraternal Associations in your community. Find out what welfare work each of them does.
8. Make a list of the Athletic Associations in your community. In which are you particularly interested?

PART II

THE ECONOMIC LIFE OF THE COMMUNITY

CHAPTER IX

WANTS AND THEIR SATISFACTION

The World of Work.—The three great social institutions with which we have just dealt are intended to improve the nature and the mind of man: the family by promoting good health and good habits; the school by developing intelligence, skill, and co-operation; and the church by encouraging brotherhood and the spirit of service. We speak of the time spent and the experience gained in these institutions as the *family life*, the *school life*, and the *religious life*. In addition, there is another life which the citizen lives, which is called the *economic*, or perhaps better, the *business life*.

The business life follows the life of the family and the school in time, and is concerned with the satisfaction of wants. It is to some extent a struggle among individuals, in which each is striving to meet his own needs more completely. There are certain things which everyone must have in order to live. The most important of these are food, clothing, and shelter, or what are called *physical* or *material needs*. We are all deeply interested in the study of the methods used to provide us with these three great necessities of life. Food we must have to keep us in health

and strength. We must have clothing to protect our bodies. For like reasons, we must have shelter from the sun and the wind, frost and storms, and a home for rest and comfort.

Making a Living.—The chief concern of every man is making a living. For most people the effort necessary to make a living uses up a great deal of their energy and the greater part of their time. The passage in the Bible, "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread," sets out in quaint but forceful language the simple truth that most people have to work hard in order to live. Boys and girls eat bread in the sweat of their fathers' faces, that is, they live through the efforts of their parents; but we know that there comes a time when young people must enter the struggle for themselves. Thus the passage we have just quoted refers to the men and women in the world, and likewise to those who are to be the men and women of the future. We cannot satisfy even our physical needs without effort and sacrifice. Life is, therefore, a hard and continuous struggle for existence. But the means whereby these needs may be met are at hand. In an earlier chapter we saw how people working together, and with the wealth of the farm, the forest, and the mine, produced the materials and the tools required for the making of a wooden box. Nature is bountiful. It is for us to apply intelligence, foresight, strength, and patience in order to make use of her bounty for our support and comfort.

Wants.—The wants of people are many, and they vary according to circumstances. Individuals or families in out-of-the-way places or people who are not yet civilized do not have many wants to satisfy, while individuals or families living in modern communities have a great number and a great variety of wants. The physical needs already spoken of are common to all people. But even these are

not uniform among all people: they vary in quality and quantity according to climate and social custom, and according to the wealth which people possess. For example, the clothing which some people require is very different from that which others want. The tropical savage needs only a loin-cloth; the Eskimo must have furs. Social



A BEAUTIFUL MODERN HIGHWAY

custom requires some men to wear collars and ties, at least on certain occasions. Also those who have more money than the average demand more and better clothing. There are similar variations in people's needs and demands for food and shelter.

But, in addition to food, clothing, and shelter, people

in progressive communities want many other things. They want books, flowers, music, pictures, jewellery, and other beautiful things. They want things for pleasure and amusement, such as automobiles, phonographs, and player pianos. While every one cannot satisfy fully all these wants, it should be possible for every person who has strength, ability, and a willingness to work, to enjoy much more than the bare necessities of life. Every person should have a reasonable amount of time to devote to wholesome and enjoyable recreation, and sufficient means to provide a comfortable living for his family. Unfortunately, there are still some people in the world to whom these things are denied.

We cannot in this book discuss in any complete way the reasons why some people have so little. Sometimes the cause may be found in the person himself. He may have some physical weakness, or he may be lazy or lacking in ambition, careless, wasteful, or extravagant. Many reasons also may account for some having more than others. Some owe it to unusual ability; others to influence or to good fortune. Still others may have acquired great wealth through greed and selfishness, or the use of unfair methods in business. Certainly, no one cause can be given for the fact that all do not share alike in the good things of life. One of the greatest problems of our society is how to provide that each shall receive according to his merit.

How Wants Increase. It is very desirable that people should improve their standard of living, and they have been doing so in all progressive communities. The new wants that develop are commonly of a cultural nature, that is, those that appeal to our desire for knowledge, to our love of beauty, and to our wish for wholesome amusements. The luxuries of one age become the needs of the next, and in every age there is a steady striving of the

many to secure the comforts and luxuries enjoyed by the few. This is all very good within limits. Unfortunately, these limits are not always observed. The amusements of the idle sometimes prove harmful for those whose welfare, usefulness, and success depend upon simple living and definite purpose, and it is too true that many people to-day want many things that they do not need, and for which they cannot pay.

Private Needs and public Needs.—When we speak of wants, we usually think of personal needs such as those that we have just mentioned. These are called *private needs*. But we have other needs, such as roads, streets, firehalls, schools, and hospitals, the benefits of which are shared by many people, that is, by the public generally. These are known as *public needs* or *public services*. They seem to be quite different from private needs, but they have this in common, that they must be paid for. Business and industry, however, exist chiefly to satisfy private needs.

The Satisfying of Wants.—There is a wide difference between the wants of undeveloped society and those of our modern society, and between the ways in which they are satisfied. The wants of the former are few, being chiefly concerned with food, and they are easily met at most times. In some tropical islands, nature supplies food so abundantly that the natives do not have to work. Hence they are lazy. Uncivilized people generally lead a hand-to-mouth existence. When there is food, they eat all they can. But sometimes there is none, and then they starve. Feasts and famines often follow one another closely among uncivilized peoples, because they do not look ahead, and because they have no regular habits of work.

We, however, have many wants, and they are not so easy to satisfy. We want much more than food. But even food does not grow just as we need it. It does not grow

in the winter, and in the summer we must work to produce what we want. We would starve, if we had not foresight and habits of work. These are qualities which mark our civilized society, and the more they are developed the better are we able to satisfy our growing wants.

The Development of modern Methods.—The ways in which people satisfy their wants to-day had their simple beginnings in early days. The community was self-sufficing, but its individuals were not. They were to a certain extent dependent upon each other. As the community grew, its wants grew, and it was natural that individuals tended to specialize by doing those things which they could do best. For instance, more food was needed, and, in order to cultivate the land more carefully, certain individuals devoted their whole time to it, while others provided the means of satisfying other wants of the community.

When the community found that it was producing more than was needed for the use of its members, trade would naturally spring up with other peoples, who had to spare other articles of a different kind. Then some individuals would give all their time to trading, or *exchange of goods*, while others would devote themselves to carrying goods, that is, to *transportation*. We can see how, in this way, our present methods of satisfying our needs and wants have developed.

In these different kinds of work we see the small beginnings of modern agriculture and of other industries devoted to using the resources of nature, to manufacturing, to exchange of goods, and to transportation. The only difference is that in early society these activities were very simple, while now they are very complex. With us, wants are satisfied through *organization*, that is, by people working together in groups, each group undertaking special tasks.

Questions and Suggestions

1. When Robinson Crusoe was cast away on his island, he had many things from the ship to help him. How did he supply himself with shelter? How did he afterwards obtain food and clothing? Have you read the *Swiss Family Robinson*? The book describes the adventures of a family who were shipwrecked on an island near Australia.

2. If you were shipwrecked on an island close to the Arctic Circle, how would you supply yourself with food, shelter, and clothing?

3. Pick out any ten boys in your class and find out how their fathers make a living.

4. Should you allow amusements and sports to interfere with your studies? with your work at home?

5. Emerson says that every man is as lazy as he dares to be. Is this true?

6. Find out what you can about the life of the natives in tropical countries. Do they have to work hard for a living?

CHAPTER X

THE EXTRACTIVE INDUSTRIES

Wealth.—The great work of producing things to satisfy our needs is called *the production of wealth.* We very commonly use the word "wealth" to mean great riches, such as money, stocks, houses, lands, etc., but we use it in the business world as a general term for all those things which we can exchange.

Economic Activities.—There are four great classes of services, or activities, which help in the production of wealth, and in bringing it to those who use or consume it. These are:

1. The extractive industries.
2. The manufacturing industries.
3. Exchange of goods.
4. Transportation and communication.

The Extractive Industries. By the extractive industries we mean those organizations, or groups of workers, that are engaged in extracting wealth from our natural resources. Most commonly this wealth is called *raw material*, because it has to be further prepared or changed into usable form to satisfy our wants. Nature supplies all the material of our wealth. It is to be found in our lands, forests, mines, lakes, rivers, and oceans. Therefore, these are called *natural resources.*

The extractive industries are agriculture, lumbering, mining, fishing, and trapping. They are sometimes called

the *primary industries*, because they are those upon which all other industries depend.

Agriculture.—Agriculture, or farming, is an important industry in Canada. More than half our people live and work in the country, and the value of the agricultural products of the Dominion in 1922 was nearly one billion dollars.

Farming is commonly held up as an independent kind of industry and life. The farmer usually owns his land,



BINDERS AT WORK ON A WESTERN FARM

his home, his barns, his stock, and his machinery, and is his own master. Farming is also probably the healthiest occupation, with its open-air life and plenty of good fresh food.

Like everything else, farming has its drawbacks. It is an uncertain business, for the crops depend upon the weather, and their price depends upon a market that is very hard to calculate. The farmer and his family, moreover, must work hard, and they are often cut off from other society.

But conditions are improving. Though the business of farming will always be uncertain, the risk is being reduced by science and organization. In the Canadian North-West, much has been gained by the introduction of early ripening crops, and all over Canada the benefits of co-operative marketing are being discovered. The heavy labor of the farm is being reduced by the use of machinery and the adoption of more scientific methods, and the loneliness and isolation of farm life are being banished by better roads and schools, free rural mail deliveries, and the use of the telephone, the automobile, and the radio.



HARROWING WITH MACHINERY

During the Great War food was scarce and expensive, because the armies required so much, and because there were fewer men and fewer fields to produce food. In ordinary times, however, it seems easy for the world to produce more food than it requires. Then the prices of agricultural products are low, since the supply is more than equal to the demand. The demand, too, for such commodities is limited or, as we say, is *inelastic*, because the appetite for food is completely satisfied by a certain quantity each day. On the other hand, the demand for those things which are needed for amusement and recreation is *elastic*. This means that it is limited only by the power to buy and the time to use them. Consequently, except when there is a shortage of food, the prices of these other things are relatively higher.

Conservation of Soil Resources.—The ownership of land carries with it a certain responsibility. As all our wealth comes from the earth and the waters of the earth, it is plain that these resources should be used in such a way as to make them helpful to all the people of our own day and to coming generations. If a farmer produces large quantities of food, he is helping the community as a



AN IRRIGATION DAM

whole, but in doing so it is very important that he should leave the land at least as fertile as he found it. He can do this by careful cultivation, by clean farming, by crop rotation, that is, planting different crops at different times in the same soil, and by fertilization, that is, enriching the land by putting back into it some of the things taken out by the crops. This is called *conservation of soil resources.*

Conservation does not mean keeping our natural resources idle. It means making a wise use of them. Drainage and irrigation are very important. Often the soil possesses all the necessary substances and yet cannot produce good crops or even any crops. This is because it has not the right supply of air and water. The valuable properties of the soil are thus imprisoned, but they may be released by drainage or irrigation. Drainage is drawing off surplus water to let the air in: irrigation is the opposite process of supplying the necessary water. Both are managed by systems of artificial channels, frequently called canals. Local drainage systems are common, but wide areas may also be drained by one system. Irrigation, however, is almost always practised on a large scale. Sometimes it is done by government, and sometimes by private companies, with or without government assistance. Certain tracts in Saskatchewan and British Columbia are irrigated, and in southern Alberta systems now in operation make provision for the irrigation of over one million acres.

Lumbering.—Lumbering is an important industry in Canada, the forest products for the year 1921 being valued at more than two hundred million dollars. Lumber is the most convenient, the most easily handled, and the cheapest material for houses, barns, and other buildings, and for furniture and parts of tools and implements. It is not, however, suitable for large, heavy buildings, nor is it safe for buildings in a crowded city. An enormous quantity of timber is used yearly in the manufacture of wood pulp, from which paper is made. Like farming, the lumbering industry is being more easily and rapidly carried on now than formerly, because of the increased use of water-power and the improvement of machinery for collecting and handling logs.

Conservation of Forests.—Conservation is of the utmost importance in lumbering, if our forest resources are not to disappear entirely. Under a careful system of replanting, or *reforestation* as it is called, our immense forests will last for an indefinite period. The greatest enemy to the lumberman is fire. Frequently, the lumbermen themselves are to blame for the spread of fires. Instead of piling



LOGS READY FOR THE MILL

and burning the branches and tree tops at once, while there are plenty of men at hand to keep the fire from spreading, they leave them lying scattered over the ground, thus giving a fire, which may start at any time, a splendid chance to spread. Forest fires are frequently caused by sparks from a locomotive, or by the camp fires or the lighted cigars and cigarettes of careless campers and

hunters. A forest that has taken hundreds of years to grow may thus be ruined in a few hours. "A tree will make a million matches; a match will destroy a million trees."

In the Prairie Provinces the Dominion government carries on the work of conservation of forest wealth by making and enforcing laws regulating the cutting of timber, by replanting areas where the trees have been cut down, and by seeding new tracts. The provincial governments also encourage the farmers to plant trees on the prairie for the purpose of protecting buildings and field and garden crops, as well as to prevent soil-blowing. Similar protective measures are taken in the other provinces. Forest rangers, or fire guardians, see that all the laws and regulations regarding the cutting of timber and the prevention of fires are strictly obeyed.

In many provinces the provincial government has also set aside large tracts of land as forest reserves, on which timber is not allowed to be cut. In Ontario about eighteen thousand square miles of standing timber have thus been reserved, in Quebec over one hundred and eighty thousand square miles, and in British Columbia over two thousand one hundred square miles. These huge reserves give assurance that the lumber supply of Canada will not soon be exhausted.

A recent writer says: "To-day the forests of the Dominion are held to be one of its greatest and most valuable assets, not only in supplying fuel and building materials, but also tempering the climate, holding back the waters that fall as rain and snow, supplying streams with abundant water during the summer and drier season for the beverage of man, for irrigation purposes, water power, and the numerous industries depending upon this commodity for the health and prosperity of the nation."

Boys and girls can give valuable aid to forest conservation by being careful not to start fires where they are likely to spread, and by preventing others from doing so. They can also plant trees whenever an opportunity offers. This planting of trees is a good habit. An old saying runs: "Plant trees; they'll grow while you are sleeping."

Mining.—Hidden in the rocks beneath the soil of Canada are stores of minerals whose value no man can



IN THE INTERIOR OF AN ALBERTA COAL MINE

estimate. All the most important commercial metals, except tin, are found within our borders. Ontario possesses nine-tenths of the known nickel supply of the world. Quebec leads the world in the production of asbestos. Gold, silver, and copper are found in Ontario and British Columbia. Lead is mined in British Columbia. Natural gas and oil are found in Alberta, Ontario, and New Bruns-

wick. The coal supply of Alberta is practically inexhaustible. Much coal is also mined in Nova Scotia, British Columbia, and New Brunswick. In 1922, the total Canadian output of minerals was valued at one hundred and eighty-five million dollars. Coal is perhaps our most useful mineral, but unfortunately it is mined only in the east and the west, and not in Ontario or Quebec. If the difficulties of transportation could be overcome, Canada would be able to depend wholly upon her own supply of coal for both heating and manufacturing purposes.

Conservation of Minerals.—Minerals do not renew themselves; in using them we are lessening our total supply. There is, however, an economical and also a wasteful way of mining. By careless methods we have lost a great deal of our coal, oil, and natural gas.

When coal is mined, the roof of the mine is held up by pillars of coal, while the coal all around them is taken out. Often these pillars are finally removed, their place being taken by wooden supports. Thus all the coal is extracted. But sometimes these coal pillars are left where they stand. In some mines fully fifty per cent of the coal in the mine is lost in this careless way. Well worked mines get out ninety-five per cent of the supply, and the best of them nearly one hundred per cent. Great losses of coal are caused by the burning of seams, or layers of coal, which outcrop or appear on river banks. Prairie fires sometimes set the outcrops of coal on fire. Carelessness or accident may start a mine fire which will burn for years, destroying all the coal. Coal is wasted, also, in the furnaces in our factories and homes. If the coal is not properly burned, much of it is lost in smoke. It is said that in the United States alone twenty million tons of coal go up the chimneys in smoke each year. The Dominion government has provided for the continuance of our coal supply by

reserving large coal areas in the prairie provinces, particularly in Alberta.

Oil is at present used as freely as though the supply were inexhaustible. As a matter of fact, so far as we can estimate, the supply is extremely limited and will be exhausted within a comparatively few years. It is of the greatest importance, therefore, that care should be taken to prevent waste. Chemists all over the world are now engaged in trying to find satisfactory substitutes for this most useful natural product. Natural gas, too, is wasted



FISHING BOATS DOCKING AFTER A SUCCESSFUL CATCH

in such a reckless manner that the supply is almost exhausted, except in a very few parts of the country.

While our chief waste has been of these three articles, our other mineral resources may likewise be wasted. They will never grow again, and, therefore, we must guard them carefully also.

Fishing.—The fisheries of Canada, coast and inland, supply us with a great deal of food, both for our own use and for export to other countries. On the east coast, cod, mackerel, haddock, herrings, sardines, and smelts, as well as oysters and lobsters, are taken in great quantities.

Salmon and halibut are the most valuable fish caught on the western coast. Lake and brook trout, sturgeon, whitefish, pickerel, bass, and perch are the chief fish of our inland waters. The waters of Hudson Bay, which are filled with fish of many varieties, are as yet untouched. As Canada develops, this great inland sea will undoubtedly prove another valuable fishing ground. The products of the fisheries in 1921 were valued at about thirty-five million dollars.

Conservation of Fisheries.—Like the forests, our fisheries may be exhausted, or they may be conserved. In most provinces there are *closed seasons* for the inland fisheries, that is, certain times of the year during which no fishing is allowed. In some provinces, also, certain streams and other waters are closed entirely for a fixed period in order to preserve the fish life from extinction. The Dominion government is also doing a most important work in restocking waters where the fish have been destroyed. For this purpose, and to keep up the supply in other streams and lakes, about sixty fish-hatcheries are in operation. Young people should find it interesting to make trout ponds for themselves, or to restock small streams which formerly held valuable brook trout.



A COLLECTION OF FURS

The Fur Industry.—The fur wealth of Canada is important, because of the beauty, variety, and quantity of the furs produced. The total value of the fur catch in 1921

amounted to seventeen and a half million dollars. In all the provinces the government protects very strictly the fur-bearing animals, closed seasons being established for most of them. The hunting of some animals, such as the musk-ox, is prohibited at all times. Game guardians see that these regulations are respected. Particularly in Prince Edward Island and in New Brunswick, fox-farms have been established, where black and silver foxes are bred for their fur. This is a valuable industry, which is spreading rapidly throughout the whole Dominion. In the North-West Territories the government has reserved large tracts of land, in which only native Indians are permitted to hunt.



A NORTHERN TRAPPER

Water-Powers.— In discussing our great natural heritage, we must not forget our marvellous water-powers. There are innumerable falls and rapids in the rivers of Canada. Though they hinder navigation, they have a wonderful value. The power exerted by swiftly-moving masses of water is very great, and for centuries men have harnessed this power to turn the wheels of their mills and factories. In more recent times, we have learned to change this water-power into electrical energy, to transmit it through wires for great distances, and to use it to drive machines in factories, move cars on railways, and furnish heat and light to houses and city streets hundreds of miles distant.

The water-powers of Canada are unrivalled, and are

widely distributed through the country. It is estimated that they total at least twenty-five million horse-power per year, the available power on the Hamilton River in Northern Quebec alone exceeding nine million. If all this power were in use, it would be equivalent to five hundred and fifty million tons of coal each year. Up to the present, not more than one twenty-fifth of this power is being developed and applied. Yet this is enough to run many factories and electric railways, and light many cities. The water-powers are one of our greatest natural resources and may contribute to an immense industrial development in the future.

Conservation of natural Beauty.—Canada is famous the world over for its wonders and beauties of nature. To preserve them from wilful destruction for the sake of immediate gain, government has set aside certain large tracts in various parts of the Dominion as public parks. These are to be maintained for all time for the pleasure and benefit of the people. Some of the largest are Banff and Jasper National Parks in Alberta, Algonquin Park in Ontario, and Laurentide Park in Quebec. The forests, the game, and the fish of these great parks are strictly protected. In addition to these, there is a very special park at Wainwright, Alberta, where the Dominion government is preserving a herd of over eight thousand buffalo, the largest in the world.

Conservation of Bird Life.—There are over six hundred varieties of birds in Canada. Most of these migrate to the south in winter, but they breed and rear their young in this country. Prairie chicken, partridge, ptarmigan, and other birds that feed on berries, buds, and grain, remain all the year round. Our coasts abound with water-fowl, while our woods and fields are the home of small birds of many kinds, beautiful for their song and plumage. Many of our birds are suitable for food. Indeed, in the north

country, wild geese and wild ducks form a considerable part of the food supply. It is estimated that at least eighty thousand wild geese are killed each year to provide food for the trading-posts around Hudson Bay.

Both the Dominion and the provincial governments are trying to preserve this valuable bird life by stringent regulations. Some varieties may be killed only in certain seasons and then only in limited quantity. Others, such as the wild swan, may not be killed at any time. Government regulations protect not only food-birds but also other birds such as gulls, grebes, and certain kinds of ducks which feed upon waste matter along the seashore and in our lakes, bays, and rivers. Song birds are not allowed to be killed at all, except by special permission and under special government license. An agreement with the United States protects the birds while passing from one country to the other. Of course, there are certain birds of prey, such as the hawks, which may be killed at any time.

These regulations are wise, and it is the duty of every good citizen to assist in their observation, for some birds that were recently quite common in Canada, such as the wild pigeon and turkey, have been killed off entirely. Here again the boys in our schools can be of great help. It is only thoughtless cruelty that urges boys to stone the birds, or to shoot at them with catapults, air-guns, or small rifles.

Conservation and Citizenship.—As we have already stated, conservation is preventing the waste, not the use, of our natural resources. In the past there has been great carelessness in handling these gifts of nature, caused largely by the desire to turn them at once into money. But now we see that it is our duty to conserve them,—to use them wisely and to pass them on for the use of those

who follow us. This is the duty, not only of government, but of all of us, young and old alike.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Show how the heavy work of the farm is being made easier by the use of machinery. What is meant by scientific methods of farming? What are the chief advantages of country life? of farming as an occupation?

2. What is meant by conservation? Show its importance in relation to the soil. Suggest a number of ways in which the soil may be conserved. Have you any large irrigation projects in your province? Have you ever seen an irrigation dam? Describe the method of irrigation used in your province? Have any large drainage plans been undertaken in your province? Do you know how these drainage plans were carried out? What is the importance of irrigation? of drainage?

3. Find out all you can about lumbering in your province. Have you ever visited a lumber camp and watched the logging operations? Why is the conservation of our forests important? Have you ever seen a forest fire? Have you ever read about any great forest fires in Canada? What are the duties of a forest ranger? How can you help in the conservation of our timber supply? What are the regulations in your province for putting out camp fires? Have you any forest reserves in your province? How are they managed? Why are they needed? What effect has the conservation of the forests on the water supply?

4. Have you ever visited a coal mine? a silver mine? a copper mine? If you have not seen any of these mines, find out how the mining operations are carried on. Have you ever seen an oil well? Have you any oil wells in your province?

5. What are the chief uses of coal, oil, natural gas, copper, lead, and zinc? Show the importance of each of these in our industrial life. If the coal and the oil supply of Canada were suddenly to cease, what should we do? Have you any coal reserves in your province? Show the importance of the conservation of minerals.

6. Have you ever done any deep-sea fishing? Find out all you can about the Nova Scotia fishing fleet. Find out all you can about the halibut fisheries on the Pacific coast. Describe a salmon run. Tell about the drying of codfish. How are lobsters caught? What do you mean by an oyster bed? Are the inland fisheries in your province valuable? What kind of fish are caught?

7. What are the regulations in your province in regard to fishing? Who enforces these regulations? Have you ever seen a fish hatchery? Find out all you can about the methods used. Have you ever seen a salmon pool? Have you ever made a trout pond? Are all the fish caught in your province consumed at home? If not, where is the surplus sent?

8. How are the various fur animals in your province hunted or caught? What fur animals have you in your province? Find out about the laws for their protection. What are the duties of the game warden? Have you ever visited a fox-farm? Find out all you can about such a farm and tell the class about it.

9. Find out all you can about the water-powers of your province. What is the importance of these to Canada? Is your town or city lighted by electricity? If so, where does it come from? Find out all you can about the importance of Niagara Falls in generating electricity.

10. Have you a National Park in your province? Get all the information you can, so as to be able to describe the beauties of Banff and Jasper National Parks to your class. What is the purpose of setting aside these National Parks?

11. What are the regulations in your province regarding the protection of birds? What game birds are found in your province? Do any remain during the year? Are they increasing in numbers? What are your most beautiful song-birds? Why are song-birds not allowed to be killed? Why are certain kinds of birds protected all the year? What would happen if the birds were to disappear? Have you read *The Birds of Killingworth* by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow? Ask your teacher to read it to you. What are the greatest dangers to the birds in your neighborhood? What can you do to help in the conservation of the bird life of Canada?

CHAPTER XI

MANUFACTURING

The Production of Wealth.—The study of the extractive industries has shown us that all our wealth is provided in the first place by nature. We cannot create wealth, but we can produce wealth from sources or resources already created. It needs the work and skill of man to secure this material wealth and change it into things that will satisfy needs.

The Importance of Manufactures.—The use of manufactured articles is so common among us that we often think little of how they are made. When we think that the articles manufactured in Canada during the year 1921 exceeded in value the sum of two and three-quarter billion dollars, we may have some idea of the enormous importance of the manufacturing industry.

Many articles of food undergo some process of manufacture before being placed on the market. The clothing we wear; our houses and furniture; our lamps and gas and electric light fixtures; our stoves and cooking utensils; our knives, forks, spoons, and dishes; our brooms, carpet sweepers, and cleaning materials; our towels, tablecloths, sheets, and blankets; our tooth-brushes and toilet articles; our sewing machines and garden tools; our wall papers and curtains; our pictures and ornaments; our books and bookcases; our pianos and gramophones; our writing paper and envelopes; the newspapers and magazines we read; and the telephone we use—all these are raw materials which have been converted by various manufacturing processes.

So, too, are the things which we use in our play. Our marbles and jacks, our footballs and basketballs, our lacrosse sticks and cricket and baseball bats, our tennis rackets and golf clubs are all manufactured for us. In fact, if all the manufacturing plants in the world were suddenly to cease producing and no more articles were manufactured, we would soon find ourselves in the position of our ancestors many hundreds of years ago. Each family would have to depend upon itself to satisfy all its needs. The study of manufacturing is very important, because, more than any other great industry, it shows us how the community works, how complex our industrial life is, and how much we depend upon one another for the necessities of life.



A ROLL OF PAPER
It is in this shape that the paper used by our newspapers comes from the mill. A roll such as this weighs 750 pounds.

Changes in Manufacturing.—Before the middle of the eighteenth century, manufacturing in England was for the most part carried on in the homes of the people or in small shops. There was little change until about 1760, and then, in the years that followed, there was a marvellous development. It began with improvements in spinning and weaving machinery, and with the introduction of steam power.

This change was so great and so rapid, and had such an important effect upon the structure of society that it is called the *Industrial Revolution.* Manufacturing was removed from homes and shops to large factories, where the machines were housed and where the workers gathered to operate them. Factories tended to grow up together, with the result that large industrial centres were established over the country. It is said that the great wealth produced by the new factory methods enabled the nation to bear the



A MODERN FACTORY
All these buildings are devoted to the production of a single product.

enormous cost of the war with France, which began in 1783 and continued, with one short interval, until 1815. Great Britain rapidly became a great manufacturing and exporting country.

The Industrial Revolution, which first appeared in England, soon spread to other countries, so that now we live in what is called an industrial society or an industrial age. There has been an increasing development of machinery and power, mechanical and electrical, and there is every prospect that this will continue.

There are two tendencies in modern manufacture which have grown within recent years, and which are still growing. These are *concentration and centralization of plants* and *division of labor.*

Centralization and Division of Labor.—Not so very long ago almost every small town and village in Ontario and Quebec had its little shop engaged in the production of manufactured articles. Now these little factories are rapidly disappearing. Large manufacturing plants, employing hundreds, sometimes thousands, of men and women, are already in operation or are springing up everywhere in the cities and towns. The greater the output, the more cheaply the product can be manufactured. Manufacturing is fast becoming centralized, and with centralization has come specialization, to an extent quite unknown before.

In our large, modern manufacturing plants, the work of making an article is so distributed among the workers that each is confined to a single part of the whole, and, even in that, he performs the smallest possible number of operations. Where a worker can be confined to performing one simple operation with a single tool or machine, he acquires great skill, speed, and accuracy. Therefore, the combined work of a number of people, each performing quickly and skilfully one simple task, produces in a shorter time a great many more and better articles than can be produced in any other way. A few examples will make this clear.

In a clothing factory, the girls enter the sewing room and take their places at long rows of tables upon which the machines are placed. The electric power is turned on, the machines are set in motion, and the garments begin to move along the table from operator to operator. As each garment passes, an operator deftly seizes it and switches it beneath the needle, runs a single seam, and immediately passes it to the next operator to run another seam. And so it goes on till the garment is all sewn. Again, in an implement manufacturing plant a man may be seen standing before a rapidly-moving band-saw. His work is to seize

the boards that come to him and to cut a single curve in one edge. The board then passes on to the next man. The finished product is a fanning mill, but all that the one man did to it was to cut the semi-circle in the side boards which admits the air to the fan. It is said that in highly organized shoe factories, it requires more than a hundred people to do all the operations necessary to finish a single shoe.

The foregoing are but a few examples of hundreds that might be chosen; but they will be sufficient to give you



THE INTERIOR OF A MODERN MACHINE SHOP

some idea of the specialization demanded in our factories at the present time. The great object is to produce as many articles as possible within the shortest time in the cheapest way.

Combinations of Capital. The manufacturing and industrial concerns of to-day, if they are to carry on work in a large way, must be supported by large money resources.

This has led to various methods of raising capital for these enterprises. The most common method is the formation of a *company*. With the help of numbers of people who contribute money and who are known as *stockholders*, capital is raised in a sufficient amount for the purpose intended. These large combinations of capital are not, of course, limited to the manufacturing industries, but are found in all the services engaged in the production of wealth, in the extractive industries, in trading, and in transportation.

Competition between individual concerns has tended to drive them into combination. Many businesses sink a lot



A LARGE PAPER MILL ON THE PACIFIC COAST

of money in advertising and in sending commercial travellers all over the country in the effort to win trade from competitors. Much money is also spent on freight. Goods are often shipped from distant factories, when other factories are near at hand. All this of course adds to the cost of production. By combining, they may prevent this and other duplication of expense. But in addition to this good motive, there has sometimes been another not so worthy, —the desire to control prices by forming a monopoly. There are two checks upon this danger. One is the government, which is always on guard. The other is composed

of private individuals who will enter the same line of business and compete with the large concern, if it pushes prices up. These checks, however, are not always effective in protecting the public interest. This suggests one of the greatest problems of our society to-day. It is not the prevention of combinations of capital, for they are inevitable and make for cheaper production. It is to discover and check the abuses of any movement to advance prices unduly.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Make a list of ten well-known articles manufactured from the products of the farm; of the forest; of the mine; of the fisheries; of the fur-trade. Make a list of the well-known articles that are manufactured from petroleum, or oil.

2. Tell the class how you would get along, if there were no manufactured articles.

3. Make a list of the manufactured articles in common use on the farm. Could the farmer carry on his farming operations without manufactured articles?

4. Make a list of the manufacturing plants in your community. Find out how many men and women are employed in each. How many people are employed in the factory itself? How many people are employed in the shipping room and the offices connected with the factory? How many people are employed in the management? What would happen to your community, if the manufacturing plants were removed? What would be the effect on the merchants? What would be the effect on the farmers in the vicinity?

5. Have you ever visited a packing plant, a glass factory, a paper mill, a flour mill, an envelope factory, a book bindery, a newspaper plant, a steel mill, a cotton mill, a woollen mill, a jam factory, a canning factory, a salmon cannery, a carpet factory, or any other manufacturing establishment? You will find much to interest you in all of these.

6. From your own observation, or from books that describe our manufacturing plants, give as many examples as you can of the division of labor. An automobile factory is a good example.

7. From your History of England find out all you can about the Industrial Revolution. What part did Richard Arkwright play in this revolution? James Hargreaves? Edward Cartwright? James Watts?

CHAPTER XII

TRADE, TRANSPORTATION, AND COMMUNICATION

Merchandizing.—Besides the actual extraction of raw materials and their manufacture into finished products, there is another essential activity, that of buying and selling, or *merchandizing*. This requires care and keen business judgment, if losses are to be avoided. The farmer, lumberman, and miner sell their wheat, lumber, and iron; the millers, builders, and foundrymen buy them and work them over into various articles to meet our needs. These manufacturers sell their goods in large quantities to wholesalers, who sell them to retailers, who in turn sell them to the consumer. This buying and selling of goods is called *exchange*.

Money.—In all these transactions goods are exchanged for money or its equivalent. In early times people who had a surplus of goods did not dispose of them in this way. They simply traded them directly for the goods they wanted, just as you might trade a knife for some marbles. This simple kind of business was called *barter*. It is possible only when people live in small groups and have very simple needs. But we live very differently now.

The exchange of goods was made easier and simpler, when a well-known article was used to measure value. When the Indians used to come to the trading-posts of the Hudson's Bay Company with their different kinds of furs, the factors would say that the pack was worth so many "beaver skins," giving the Indians little sticks, called

"markers," as a tally of their beavers. These sticks would thus represent the value, or the buying power, of the packs of furs brought to the post. The Indians would then go round the store, where blankets, coats, guns, powder-horns, knives, beads, and other things were displayed, would pick out the articles they wanted, and pay for them by handing back their markers, until their buying power was exhausted. This was not barter, but was buying and selling, just as our merchandizing is to-day, but with a well-known article as a measure of value.

Metals have finally come into use as a measure of value. In older times, the baser metals were used, but now the precious metals, gold and silver, are universally used to measure the exchange value of articles. A metal or other thing used to carry on business in this way is called a *medium of exchange*.

Credit. Though this was a great improvement on barter and also on the using of a standard article like beaver skins as a measure of value and a medium of exchange, it would be very inconvenient to use metallic money, or even paper money, for all the business we do to-day. A great deal of our merchandizing is carried on, therefore, by the use of credit, that is, the power to get goods by promising to pay for them at a future date. Storekeepers do much of their business by allowing customers to run charge accounts, that is, to use their credit to secure goods.

Sometimes, when people buy on credit, they give a *promissory note*, in which they promise to pay the value of the goods on a certain date. These notes are often endorsed, that is, they are signed on the back by the person to whom they are payable and passed on by him in payment of a debt to someone else. Thus, we see that promissory notes may have the value of money and may be used in the same way in which money is used.

A *cheque* is used in the same way. A cheque is an order on a bank, in which the writer of the cheque has an account, to pay to the holder of the cheque a certain sum of money. A cheque may be endorsed and so made over to another person, who, in turn, may also endorse it and pass it on instead of money. By all these means a great deal of our business is carried on.

In business the inconvenience and danger involved in passing actual money from person to person in payment of debts is avoided by the use of notes, cheques, drafts, and the like. These are called *bills of exchange.* The way this works out may be made clear by the following illustration. *A* and *B* are two persons residing in one place and a long way from two other persons *C* and *D*. *A* sells goods to *C*; *B* buys goods from *D*. *A* has a claim on *C*, which he sells to *B*. *B* sends it to *D* to pay his debt to him, and *D* gets the cash from *C*. So one piece of paper, whether note, cheque, or draft, may be used to satisfy the four parties to the transaction, and the trouble, expense, and risk of sending money back and forth between them is avoided. Finally, bank notes or bills, such as one-dollar and two-dollar bills issued by the Dominion government, or five-dollar, ten-dollar, twenty-dollar, etc., bills issued by a bank, are merely promises on the part of the government or a bank to pay to the holder of such notes the sum appearing on the face of the notes. Thus, if you have a five-dollar bill, it is a promise by the bank whose name appears on the bill to pay you the sum of five dollars in gold.

Banks.—What do you know about banks? A good many of you have money in a bank. The simplest service a bank does for us is to keep safely that part of our money which we do not need to use. If we do not expect to issue many cheques against our account, we deposit our money in the *savings department* of a bank, which pays us a small

interest on the money so deposited. The reason a bank can afford to pay us interest is that it can lend our money to others at still higher interest. The money we put in a bank is thus of use to the community, because the banker puts together all our small earnings and lends the money to men engaged in enterprises that furnish work for men and women and produce things to satisfy our wants. If we wish to put our money in a bank for convenience in paying accounts as well as for safe-keeping, we put it into a *current account* and receive no interest.

When a business man wants to borrow money, he goes to a bank and asks for a loan. The banker finds out what property the business man has which could be considered as security for the loan, or a guarantee to the bank that, if the money were lent, it would not be lost. If this is satisfactory, the borrower signs a promissory note. The banker credits him with the cash value of the note, that is, he deducts from the amount of the note the sum that the borrower must pay in interest, crediting his account with the balance and holding the note for payment in full when due. This branch of a bank's work is called *discount*. It is a very important work, as it helps to keep the wheels of industry and business turning.

A good example of the way in which banks assist industry and commerce is to be found in the method by which the grain crop of the country is handled. A large part of the grain is sold in other countries, and it would be a long time before the money from the actual purchaser could reach the farmer who produces the grain. The banks lend money to pay the farmer on delivering his grain at the elevator, and also lend money to the railway and steamship companies to assist them in carrying the grain to the purchaser. In due course the proceeds of the sale of the grain reach the bank. In the interval, the farmer has his

money, and those who helped to produce and deliver the grain are paid for their work.

Another service a bank renders is the issue of notes, or bills. These pass from person to person without endorsement and are used generally for local business. As we have seen, they are merely promises on the part of a bank to pay to the holder the sum of money stated on the notes. In Canada, banks do not issue notes for any sum less than five dollars. One- and two-dollar bills are issued by the Dominion government only. Canadian banks are required to deposit a guarantee with the Dominion government to protect the holders of bank notes against loss. Each bank must deposit with the government a sum equal to five per cent of the value of all the notes it issues. These deposits form a fund from which, if any chartered bank should fail, the holders of notes of that bank may be paid the entire sum represented by the notes in their possession.

These methods of carrying on business are very different from those employed in the early days. Being able to procure things through a medium of exchange enables people to do whatever kind of work they like best. They exchange their labor for money and buy with it whatever they want. The development of credit, moreover, enables those who have money to lend it to those who can use it more profitably. Both gain, for the lender receives interest and the borrower reaps a profit over and above the interest he pays.

Transportation and Communication.—We have learned how manufacturing depends upon the extractive industries. The raw materials must be produced before the manufacturer can begin his work upon them. The trading of products, that is, exchange, and the carrying of products, that is, transportation, are associated in much the same way, since the moving of products depends upon the trading of products. Raw materials must be moved from

their source to be transformed into finished commodities, and these in turn have to be carried to stores for distribution to consumers. The surplus of products has to be moved from country to country; and, finally, people have to be carried from place to place for the transaction of business. Transportation is, therefore, a very necessary community method of helping to satisfy our needs.

We have seen how in this age men are able to follow the occupations of their choice and, with the money which they receive for their labor, to purchase those things which they desire or need. This, together with the ever-increasing needs of people who live in modern communities, is responsible for the development of transportation facilities.



TRANSPORTATION BY DOG TEAMS

No one country, and certainly no one section of any country, can in these days produce from its own resources and by its own industry everything required to meet the needs of its people. We need many different things and can provide ourselves with all of them only by trading with other people.

How Trade has Developed.—In a small and local way we see this exchange and carrying of products going on between the farmer and the merchant at his nearest trading centre. The farmer brings in his excess produce and carries back a supply of those things which he needs, but which he cannot get for himself. With the proceeds of his wheat, oats, eggs, poultry, and vegetables he buys tea, sugar, flour, and fruit. We see an extension of this in the exchange of

goods between various sections of our province, and further in the trading and carrying which goes on between provinces, *interprovincial trade*, as it is called. Thus, the wheat and meat of the western prairies is exchanged for manufactured articles and machinery produced in the cities of eastern Canada.

There is likewise between our country and other countries a continual exchange of goods, whereby we meet the need for those things which we do not produce ourselves, or cannot produce so well or so cheaply as they are produced in other lands. Thus, we say that we buy in the markets of the whole world, and that our exports pay for our imports, that is, the goods which we sell to other countries pay for the goods which we buy from these countries.

The Advantages of Trading.—There are great advantages in trading with other people. In the first place, we are able, by so doing, to add great variety to the ways of meeting our needs and satisfying our wants. Exchange of products makes for a common interest within our own locality, our province, and our own Dominion. It is one of the strongest forces in holding the country together. In the same way, trading has been the greatest single factor in bringing all the peoples of the world together, and the greatest means of teaching nations about one another. International trade has shown the peoples of the world something of the extent to which they are dependent the one upon the other. For example, we in Canada have suffered as a result of the financial breakdown of many European countries following the Great War. As these countries had no money to spend, there has been a decrease in the demand for our products and, therefore, a decline in their price. As a natural consequence, we were unable to satisfy our wants and our needs to the same extent as

formerly. It is, therefore, easy to understand how, when one country is in distress, all others are affected to a greater or less degree.

Transportation in Canada.—The history of the development of transportation facilities in our own country is full of romantic interest. The Indians used canoes to bring to the forts of the trading companies their packs of furs, and to carry back to the wilderness a year's supplies of blankets, knives, powder, and tobacco. We think of travel by dog-team as we still have it in the far north. We are reminded, too, of the fact that our great-grandparents in eastern Canada made their homes along the streams, for these were the highways over which they moved their supplies or made their escape when danger threatened.



A CORDUROY ROAD
This road was made of logs, either split or unsplit, laid crosswise.

Travel by horseback and later by stage-coach began when a few roads were opened up and made passable. Then road-making proceeded more rapidly. Private companies, sometimes assisted by the government, constructed roads and collected a "toll," that is, a fee, from all those using them. This was to pay the initial cost and bear the expense of upkeep. All the provinces now have excellent highways stretching in all directions, and the government of the Dominion encourages and assists the construction of great transcontinental highways.

Meanwhile, the railroad was coming into use. At first the rails were wooden beams, which provided smooth runways for the wheels of the carts. To make them wear better, they were later capped with steel. Finally, all steel rails were used. At first the power was furnished by horses or mules; but, as in industry so in transportation, the invention of steam power worked great changes. A little less than one hundred years ago, George Stephenson, an Englishman, built the first successful steam locomotive. The trains of the early days were very queer looking—



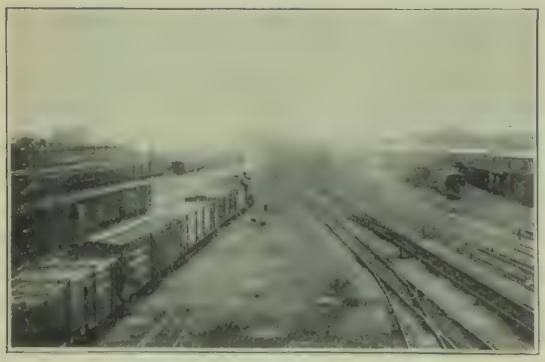
THE FIRST RAILWAY TRAIN IN CANADA, 1837

small engines trailing a few cars which resembled the stage-coaches then in use. The whole train was scarcely longer than a modern locomotive. Travel was slow and unpleasant, but gradually everything improved, until now we travel in comfort and luxury, crossing the continent in the time required in those days to make a short journey.

Our Canadian Railways.—Our railroads are of great importance. They bind together the different sections of our country and help to create a community of interest. They play a large part in the settlement and in the development of the country which they traverse. They assist in building up large cities and important distributing centres. They bring the producer and the consumer together. Through them, travel is made easy, and our knowledge is thereby increased. Besides carrying com-

modities, they keep us in touch with the doings of the whole world by bringing our letters, newspapers, and magazines. In fact, they are so important to our life that we class them as *public utilities*. We are so dependent upon them that the Dominion government is justified in regulating their activities to ensure fair treatment to all sections of the country, to all industries, and to all individuals.

The great transcontinental railways of the Dominion—the Canadian National Railways and the Canadian Pacific Railway—are the most important overland transportation services. Each has many branches and smaller lines as part of its system. Connected with them are fleets of ocean steamers running from our east and from our west coasts. Thus Canada is traversed by world highways.



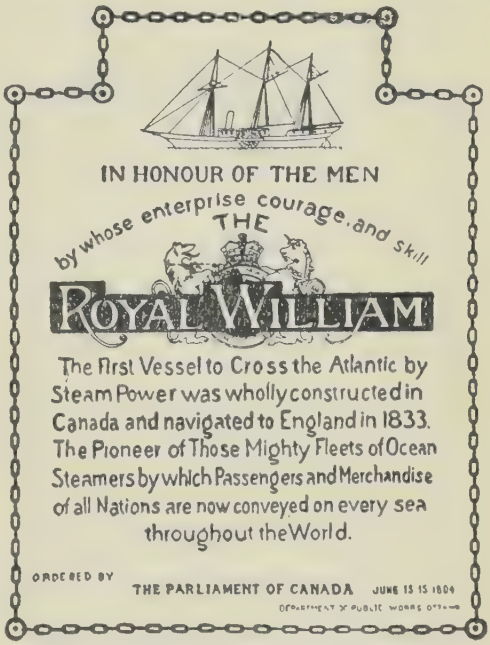
RAILWAY YARDS IN A CITY

Electric Railways.—There has been a similar development in electric railways during the last forty years, assisted greatly by the development of water-power in the various provinces. In addition to the street railways of our towns and cities, there are now many electric lines running through the country sections. These are known as *suburban lines*. They serve to bring surrounding rural districts into closer relation with the towns and cities.

About twenty years ago, electric locomotives came into use for hauling passenger trains through the underground approaches to the city of New York, to avoid the dangers and unpleasantness of steam locomotives in tunnels.

Since that time, electricity for railway transportation has been finding ever-increasing uses. Here again the use of water-power to generate electricity has led to its increased use as locomotive power, especially in tunnels and for hauling heavy trains in the mountain areas.

The Automobile.—More recently we have seen the development of a new means of land transportation—the automobile for passenger travel and the motor truck for carrying goods. These depend upon good roads, and thus the most urgent transportation need of the early days is that of to-day—the need for good roads. Motor vehicles have come into such common use that almost everyone is interested in the effort to provide better highways throughout the country. The automobile has enriched both country and city life, bringing nearer to each the advantages peculiar to the other.



THE ROYAL WILLIAM TABLET

Water Transportation.—Within the last hundred years there have been similar improvements in travel by water. Steam power has revolutionized the conditions prevailing in the days of sailing ships. Canals have been built, and harbors improved. Water transport is slower than rail, but is much cheaper. It is best for heavy non-perishable commodities such as coal, iron, and wheat. It is also pleasanter for passengers. The passenger boats of to-day

are as comfortable and luxurious as the finest homes. In fact, they are frequently spoken of as floating palaces or hotels.

We must refer also to travel by air. Passengers, mail, and some goods are now carried by aeroplane. In most provinces the aeroplane is used by forest rangers in patrolling the forests and in rushing men to the scene of a fire. No one can tell to what extent it may be used in the future as a means of transportation.

Advances in Communication.—As in transportation, so in communication. Our postal system is now highly organized and efficient. In addition to carrying letters and newspapers, our mail service has added a parcel post. New means of communication have come, all within the memory of men living to-day. To Samuel B. Morse the world is indebted for the telegraph, to Alexander Graham Bell for the telephone, to Cyrus W. Field for the Atlantic cable, and to Marconi for wireless telegraphy. Most boys and girls know something of the wonders of the radio. The world of business depends vitally upon these means of rapid communication. From the little that has been said, we can gather some idea of the way in which trade, travel, and news are bringing all parts of the world and all peoples closer together.

Summary.—Those of you who have been studying these chapters dealing with the business life are still leading the life of the family and of the school, and you have not had as yet very much experience in the world of business and industry. On this account, you may find the business life harder to understand. You must remember, however, that the business life is very important, because it reaches around the world and joins the peoples of the world into one great community of citizens dependent upon one another. The business interests are the greatest interests

of mankind, first, because they are concerned with procuring the material necessities of life, and second, because upon our success in our business life depends our power to satisfy our less necessary though very important needs in the fields of education, culture, and recreation.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Why do we now use gold and silver as a medium of exchange? Suppose that a mountain of gold were discovered, what effect would this have on gold as a medium of exchange? Give other examples of a well-known article being used as a measure of value.

2. How many chartered banks have you in your community? How many chartered banks are there in Canada? What control has the Dominion government over the chartered banks in Canada?

3. Find out the value of the products we sell to France in the course of a year; to the United States; to Great Britain; to Japan; to Australia. Find out the value of the products we import from these countries.

4. Have you ever travelled over a "corduroy road?" Are there any "toll" roads or bridges in your province? What do you mean by a macadamized road? an asphalt road? What other kinds of roads do you know? Have you good roads in your community?

5. What railways in Canada are owned by the Dominion government? by your provincial government? Would it be better if all the railways in Canada were owned by government?

6. The Dominion government controls the railways, except provincial-owned lines, through a *Railway Commission*. Find out the duties of this commission. It also controls the telephone and telegraph lines not operated by the provincial governments. Why?

7. Have you an electric railway in your community? How is it managed? Who is the superintendent? Have you any suburban lines radiating from your community? Of what use are they to your community?

8. Find out in any way you can about the harbors of St. John, Halifax, Montreal, Quebec, Prince Rupert, Vancouver, and Victoria. What lines of steamers run from each? Where do these steamers go? Are any of these lines owned by government?

9. Who owns the telephone system in your province? Who operates our great telegraph lines? What should we do, if we had no telegraph, telephone, or wireless?

10. Write a short composition on "The Importance of Transportation in Canada."

CHAPTER XIII

CAPITAL AND LABOR

Employers and Workers.—We have been discussing the four great classes of activities which help in the production of wealth, the extractive industries, the manufacturing industries, trading, and transportation and communication. In all of these services many thousands of people are engaged in the mines and in the bush, in factories and in machine shops, in stores and in offices, on railways and on steamships.

With the exception of the comparatively few who work for themselves, all of these people may be divided into two classes, those who employ and those who are employed, or, as we say, *employers* and *workers*. The employers own the buildings, machinery, etc., and provide the money to operate the industry. They are usually referred to as *capital*. The workers are usually spoken of as *labor*. In this chapter we shall consider the relations existing between the employers and the workers, or between capital and labor. There is no question at present of more importance in the industrial and business world, and none more closely affecting the well-being of the entire community.

Trade Unions.—Capital and labor are both necessary for all kinds of work. Capital alone can do nothing to produce wealth; it cannot gather the raw material or manufacture articles without the help of labor. Labor, on the other hand, needs the assistance of capital. Each is useless without the other. The struggles between capital and labor, between employers and workers, have led both sides to strengthen

themselves by coming together into combinations and unions.

After the close of the war with France in 1815, the workers in England found themselves in a deplorable condition. Thousands of men were out of employment. Wages were so low that the workers could not support their families on the pittances they received. The hours of labor were long, twelve and even fourteen hours a day being quite common. The factories were often insanitary, badly lighted, and uncomfortable. Children were employed at almost no wages to do work which should have been done by able-bodied men. The employers were frequently harsh and arbitrary, discharging their workers whenever they pleased with little regard to justice and fair play. If the workers were not willing to work in wretched surroundings for long hours at low wages, they could starve. Trade unions existed, but only as secret societies, for they were forbidden by law. At last, in 1824, an Act was passed to legalize them, and for the last hundred years they have been a growing force. At first, the unions were confined to the workers in the manufacturing industries, but they soon spread to the extractive industries, and to transportation and communication, and to business organizations generally.



A MODERN FACTORY

Note the large number of windows in the building and the absence of adjoining buildings.

Now let us see what the workers hoped to accomplish by this banding together into a union. The chief differences between them and the employers were over rates of wages,

hours of labor, and conditions of work. If an individual worker were to go to his employer and ask for increased wages, or shorter hours, or better working conditions, or all of them, he would probably be discharged on the spot. But if all the workers in the factory were to join together in the request, the employer would probably listen to them and discuss with them their demands. So it came about that representatives of the unions met the employers and laid before them the requests of the workers. This is known as *collective bargaining*. The workers had their labor to sell, and they discussed through their representatives the terms on which the employers would purchase that labor. The members of the union were, of course, bound to stand loyally by the agreement made with their representatives.

At first the unions were limited to the workers in a single factory, but the organization soon spread to include all the workers engaged in a single trade or occupation. For instance, in Canada at present, all the locomotive engineers on the various railways are united in one union. Similarly, the locomotive firemen are organized into one union, as are also the conductors and the trainmen. In many trades, however, a union does not extend beyond a particular city or district.

As their chief weapon against labor, the employers have used large organizations of capital, obtained through the formation of companies or corporations. This, in the past, has given the employers a great advantage over the workers. If an industry shuts down, it often means that the workers and their families suffer severely, but it has no such serious effect upon the employers.

Causes of Dispute.—One of the chief causes of dispute between employers and workers is the question of *wages*. The commonest method of paying the worker is by *time-*

payment, that is, he is paid for the time which he gives to his work, not for the amount of work done. The question in dispute is the value to be placed on the worker's time. Most employers in these days are quite willing to pay a wage sufficient to keep a man and his family in comfort, but the difficulty is to decide what wage is sufficient for this purpose. The employers hold, also, that in deciding what wages they should pay, they must take into account the cost of carrying on their business or industry.

The second cause of dispute concerns the *hours of labor*. Neither is there a wide difference here between employers and workers, but again the employer must consider the effect on his business. If a manufacturer in Hamilton is competing with a manufacturer in Montreal for the business of a large wholesale house in western Canada, he feels that it is not fair to ask him to grant an eight-hour day while his competitor in Montreal has a nine-hour day in force in his factory. Labor unions generally are agreed on the desirability of, and even the necessity for, a working day of eight hours, and many employers are now of the opinion that men will do more and better work in an eight-hour than in a nine-hour day. Of course, in many businesses, such as agriculture, it would be utterly impossible to limit the working day to eight hours, or even to ten or twelve hours.

The third cause of dispute, *conditions of work*, is not of so much importance as it was formerly. Government now insists that employers shall provide proper sanitary arrangements and well-lighted workrooms in all factories and shops, and generally that the health and safety of the workers shall be a first consideration.

A fourth cause of dispute is the question of *recognition of the union*. Many employers, while willing to listen to the requests of their own workers, or of their representa-

tives, refuse to deal with the officials of the union. Closely allied to this difference is the question of the *closed* or *open shop*. Many employers refuse to recognize any distinction between workers who are members of a union and those who are not. They employ both alike without question, that is, they operate what is called an open shop. The unions, on the other hand, do all they can to persuade or compel employers to close their shops or factories to any but union members.

Strikes and Lockouts.—When the employers refuse the workers' demands and no agreement seems possible, the workers frequently try to enforce these demands by means of a *strike*. This means that they quit work in a body. On the other hand, the employers frequently anticipate the action of the workers and declare a *lockout*, that is, they close down their factories or places of business. Then, the employers either simply keep their doors locked against their former employees, or they try to resume business with other workers with whom they can agree.

When a strike occurs, the employers generally try to bring in other workers, and the strikers try to persuade these men not to act as *strike-breakers*. Sometimes, to effect this purpose, threats and even violence are used. Feeling usually runs high, and frequently both employers and workers lose control of themselves and their actions. The workers either win the strike or are forced into submission. No matter which wins, the result is a loss to both sides and to the general public as well.

In strikes and lockouts the interests of the community are too often forgotten. This is most apparent in the industries affecting the necessities of life, such as mining and transportation. A strike in a cotton mill in a small town in Quebec may not have much effect upon the public in Nova Scotia or British Columbia, but if the locomotive

engineers and firemen, the conductors and trainmen on all our important railways should go on strike, almost every individual in Canada would suffer severely by the stoppage of freight, express, and passenger traffic and the mails.

So great are the losses and inconveniences inflicted upon the general public by strikes and lockouts, that government makes it illegal for workers to strike or for



REST ROOM FOR EMPLOYEES

This rest room is on the roof of a modern factory in one of our large cities.

employers to lock out their workers in public utilities until every effort has been made to reach a settlement. This has resulted in much good to the public, although often it has failed to accomplish its aim.

Improved Relations.—There is a growing tendency for employers and workers to come to a better understanding upon the method of sharing the wealth produced. The commonest method, as we have seen, is that whereby the

worker works for a certain number of hours each day, and in return receives money as wages. But there are three other methods which have come into wide use, and which may be referred to briefly.

By the *piece method*, payment is based upon the number of articles produced, or the amount of work done, rather than upon the time spent. Under this system, the more skilful and industrious workers are given an opportunity to increase their earnings. This method has some good and also some bad features: good, in that the skilled worker is enabled to earn more, and bad, in that it may lead to such a reduction in the rate of payment as makes it difficult for weaker and less skilful workers to continue to earn a living wage.

A second method is called the *bonus system*. In this a definite amount of work during the hours of employment is fixed as a standard. Each worker is paid for his time, but he may earn an additional sum proportionate to the surplus he turns out. This is a combination of the time and the piece methods. A similar plan is followed with salesmen and saleswomen who receive, in addition to their salaries, commissions or percentages on all sales which they make over and above a certain fixed amount.

A third method is called *profit-sharing*. Under this plan the worker receives a fixed wage and also a share in the profits of the business. This tends to increase production, as the worker is working for himself at the same time that he is working for his employer. Employers and workers have, therefore, a common interest, which must lead to a better understanding of their respective needs and problems.

A number of large industrial concerns are now trying the experiment of having representatives of the workers appointed directors, with the full right to take part in the management. When this plan is combined with profit-

sharing, it should prove very successful. If in any year the business should fall behind, the workers would feel that they were equally responsible with the employers, and they would not be inclined to grumble at the drop in profits.



A LUNCH ROOM FOR EMPLOYEES

Employers are beginning to recognize that their own welfare depends largely upon the contentment and well-being of the workers. This finds expression in many ways. For instance, most modern factories have the very best sanitary arrangements and large, airy work-rooms, and usually have lunch and rest rooms for their employees. Most large stores provide seats for their saleswomen, and have nurses to look after the health of the women employed. In the lumber camps and mining districts are found reading rooms and amusement halls for the benefit of the lumbermen and miners. Many manufacturing concerns provide well-built, sanitary, and attractive homes for their workers. Many also furnish recreation grounds and halls for the use of their employees.



EMPLOYEES AT LUNCH
This is the same lunch room as shown above.

When employers and workers cannot come to an agreement over some question in dispute, they frequently submit their differences to *arbitration*, both agreeing to abide by the decision of the arbitrators. Each side appoints a representative, and the two appointed agree upon a third arbitrator. The board of arbitration meets, hears both sides, weighs the evidence, and announces its decision. This is an excellent method of settling disputes, and one which is more and more coming into favor. Its effectiveness, however, depends upon both the employers and the workers standing loyally by the terms of settlement.

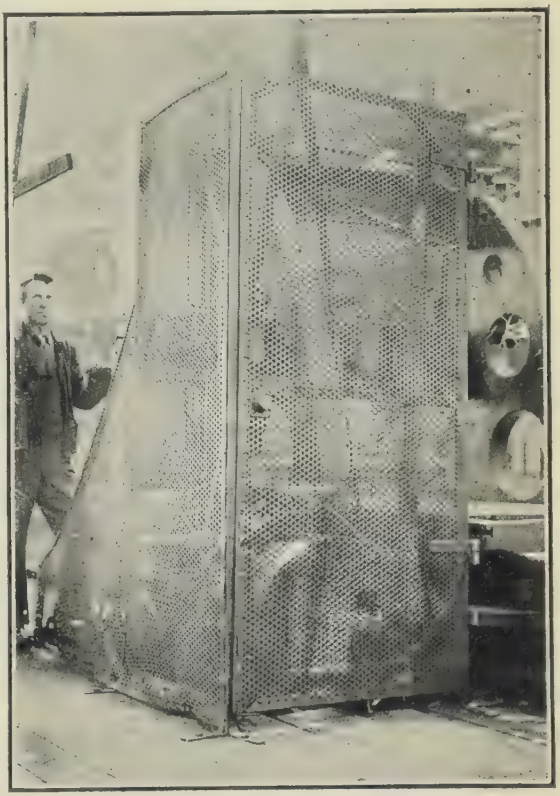
In all these and in many other ways employers and workers are gradually coming to a better understanding. Conditions are improving, because each is learning to respect the rights of the other.

Protective Legislation.—While workers have been able to improve their conditions greatly by organization, they still have many difficulties. So long as they are in good health and business is good, they get along well; but, when they are thrown out of work by accident or disease, many find it hard to make ends meet. It is owing to hardships such as these that workers have been given legal protection in many ways.

Among the most helpful of these protective laws are *Workmen's Compensation Acts*, under which an employer, even if there is no fault or neglect on his part, is obliged to compensate any of his workers who may be injured in the course of their employment. The employer generally includes the sums that he is thus obliged to pay in those items which make up the cost of production, so that the money expended for this purpose is finally paid by the consumer.

The first Workmen's Compensation Acts fixed the rights of the workers and left them to enforce these rights.

This led to law suits. Many employers found it more convenient and more satisfactory to pay insurance companies to insure the workers against accident. Finally, the government itself in a number of the provinces undertook the enforcement of the law dealing with compensation. It appoints *Compensation Boards* of three or more persons. These boards have several important duties. They inspect factories, railway shops and yards, and practically all places where labor is employed. Where conditions are not safe for the workers, they force employers to improve them. The board makes an annual assessment on the employers to pay all claims allowed by the board and to meet its own expenses.



SAFETY FIRST

Note the screen placed about the machine for the protection of the workers.

Workers who are injured or suffer from disease caused by the nature of the industry in which they are employed apply for compensation to the Board, whose decision and action are final. Accidents are divided into different classes, and the amount to be paid under each class is definitely fixed. Boards often employ doctors to assist them with

their advice. The Workmen's Compensation Act is not to be looked upon as providing charity. It is one of the ways of organizing the resources of an industry to meet the needs of those engaged in that industry.

In some provinces the government provides for a *minimum wage* for women and girls. This means that a board appointed by the government inquires into living expenses in the province and fixes the lowest wage which employers may pay. In fixing this minimum wage, the board takes into consideration the necessity for good food and clothing, comfortable lodgings, and a reasonable allowance for amusement. In some provinces, also, the hours of work for women are limited, and they are forbidden to work in or about mines, except in the offices.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Find out all you can about the origin and progress of Trade Unions in Great Britain during the first half of the nineteenth century. If you know any person who belongs to a labor union, ask him to tell you about the unions in Canada to-day.

2. Make a list of the labor unions in your community. Make a similar list of the business and industrial companies. Do you know any person in your community who produces wealth without the aid of capital?

3. Have you ever had a strike in your community? What was the effect on the workers? on the employers? on the public?

4. What would be the effect on your community of a general strike of all the post office clerks in Canada? of all the railway employees? of all the coal miners? of all the bakers? of all the foundry workers? of all the clothing workers? of all the carpenters? Would each of these have a different effect? Which would hurt the public most? Why?

5. State, so far as you can find out, why many employers in your town or city object to collective bargaining.

6. During a strike in a factory, the workers sometimes refuse to use the products of that factory and try to induce others not to use them. This is known as the *boycott*. What do you think of boycotting? When a worker is dismissed, the employer sometimes sends his name to other

employers, with a warning not to give the man employment in their establishments. This is known as *blacklisting*. What do you think of blacklisting?

7. Find out what is meant by *picketing*. Of what use is picketing to the strikers? Why do employers object to picketing? What is meant by the *union label?* Why is its use important to the workers?

8. Find out all you can about the *Lemieux Act* for the prevention of strikes. Any employer or any member of a labor union will tell you about this. The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, the highest court which deals with Canadian cases, has recently decided that the Dominion Parliament had no power to pass this Act. Has your province put into force an Act of the provincial Legislature to take its place?

9. Have you a Workmen's Compensation Act in your province? Find out all you can about the act and its operation. Is it successful?

10. Find out all you can about the laws in your province for the protection of women and children employed in business or industrial concerns.

CHAPTER XIV

FINDING AN OCCUPATION

The great Value of Education.—Our study of the school has shown us the great value of education. The training we receive in school helps us to work with others for the betterment of the community. Education opens up for us the whole field of literature. If, along with the power to read and understand, we have acquired a fondness for what is best in books, our minds will be improved and our general intelligence increased. Reading helps us also in our life work, for, no matter what occupation we choose to follow, we may find in books information that will help us to understand more about it, to deal with it more intelligently, and hence to carry it on more successfully and to enjoy it. The more sense, knowledge, and intelligence we put into life, the more will life return to us in satisfaction, contentment, and enjoyment. Thus a good education is the very foundation of success and happiness.

The School and Occupations. We owe a great deal to our teachers and to our schools for the help and inspiration they give us. Sometimes, when we consider what we have learned in school, we are inclined to think that it has not given us much help in finding our place in the great world of work and business. But we must remember that the purpose of our elementary schools is to increase our general intelligence, to train us physically and morally, and to teach us those things which every citizen must have

as a foundation for future development. Pupils in the public schools often show a fondness for certain kinds of work, but they are not ready at their age to make the best choice of an occupation, even if the schools could give them direction and practice in the work which they might choose.

Change in Ideas of Occupations.—Parents sometimes think that they can tell what occupation their boys and girls will follow, even when the child is as young as eight or nine years. But a boy need not turn out to be a farmer just because he likes farm animals, for most boys are fond of animals. A boy who likes to work with tools need not turn out to be a mechanic, for most children have a fondness for using tools in imitation of older people. Children frequently make up their minds at a very early age with regard to what they will follow as their life work. Girls often express, quite early, a desire to become missionaries, nurses, or teachers. When young, most boys have a longing for a life like that of a locomotive engineer, a chauffeur, or a fireman. Every town boy has, at one time or another, taken great pleasure in going the rounds with the baker, the milk-man, or the ice-man. But as boys and girls grow older, as their experience widens, and as they gain more knowledge of the world and its doings, they are attracted by other occupations which interest them. As a consequence, they change their minds about their choice of occupation many times before they become men and women.

The Necessity for making a Choice.—Yet there comes a time when boys and girls must definitely decide what they are going to do and what their life-work shall be. They must, at some time, lift themselves out of the position of dependence upon their parents. Some young people are slow or even thoughtless in making up their minds, but most of them welcome the chance to move out into

the world of independence and achievement. This is as it should be, for work is one of the doorways through which boys and girls are ushered into manhood, womanhood, and honorable citizenship.

Sources of Help in Choosing.—It is by no means easy to choose a fitting occupation. There is no rule or system by which we may be guided. No one can look into the future and say what each child should be and do. There are some people who claim that they can do this, but we should not put any faith in such pretenders, because they do not and cannot make good their claims. Disappointment, together with loss of time and effort, may result from taking their advice. Nevertheless, it is possible for both parents and teachers to give young people much helpful assistance and guidance in the choice of an occupation. In fact, the giving of such assistance and direction should be one of the chief duties of the home and of the school. Parents, teachers, and others can tell the boys and girls something of the new world of work which they are about to enter, and something about the requirements and possibilities of the various occupations that they may follow. Then, with this assistance and with a knowledge of themselves, young people may be able to decide wisely upon their life-work.

Narrowing the Choice.—The great question is how to choose the proper occupation. Time and money will be lost, if we make a hasty choice, only to find later that the work we have chosen seems disagreeable and uninteresting. On the other hand, it is not safe to drift along aimlessly; we must have a definite goal. The problem is to find the occupation for which we are best suited.

Possibly we can reduce the question to a choice among three or four occupations. Following this, we should find out all we can, in every way we can, about each of

the occupations we are considering. "Try-out" experiences are of great value in helping us to a decision. For instance, boys who think of farming as a vocation should test their suitability and fondness for it by spending one or two summers on a farm. In the same way, those who think of mechanical work should spend their holidays and spare time in a factory or machine shop to test the wisdom of their choice of work. Get all the advice you can about the particular occupation that you have in mind, but be sure to ask such advice only from those actually experienced or engaged in that vocation.

The Need for better Preparation.—Ideas about the school preparation necessary to fit boys and girls for the duties and responsibilities of life have changed greatly within the last few years. Not so very long ago, a public school education was considered to be quite enough for all young people, except for those who intended to become lawyers, doctors, or clergymen. But now it is recognized that, following the public school course, a period of not less than three years in high school is of immense advantage to all boys and girls who wish to make a success of their work.

This longer period of training increases the pupil's knowledge of mathematics, science, geography, literature, history, and citizenship. But it does still more. *It trains the mind to sustained effort.* Young people so trained are not easily discouraged; they have become accustomed to grappling with difficulties, to persevering and pushing through to accomplishment. They approach a situation with confidence and attack it with vigor. Moreover, because of the longer training they have had in habits of regularity, promptness, and accuracy, they have become more self-reliant and more dependable.

Recently, there has been an increase in the number of

occupations which demand a high educational standard for entrance, and for all classes of work the preparation period is being extended. Boys entering mechanical occupations are urged to take more high school work, coupling with it some actual practice in the kind of work they hope to follow. Girls who select nursing as a profession are encouraged, and in some provinces required, to take advantage of a complete high school course before entering a training hospital. These are but new evidences of advancement and progress in the world. Conditions



A BUSY WORK-ROOM
Hundreds of women are employed in this factory.

are changing, and people must be better educated in order fully to discharge their duties. The added preparation, in the long run, pays both the individual and the community.

Changed Conditions in Industry.—Changed conditions in the world of work and business have made the choice of an occupation still more difficult. Rapid transportation and communication have made people and even nations more dependent upon one another, and have added to the complexity of our business life. This dependence of people one

upon the other and the manner in which work is now divided up were made clear in the illustration of the boy making the wooden box. Further, the whole industrial world has become very much centralized.

When travelling was less easy than it is to-day, and when it was almost impossible to bring food, clothing, and other necessities from distant places, our forefathers lived in little towns that were more or less self-sufficient, that is, they did everything for themselves and managed to get along with the things provided by their own community, Their business men were the store-keepers, the butcher, baker, blacksmith, shoemaker, flour miller, and the maker of woollens. In those days a boy or girl had only a local choice of occupation, and it was easy to choose. Not so very long ago, a boy could apprentice himself to a watch-maker, a shoemaker, or a blacksmith, and learn in the course of his apprenticeship the entire trade from beginning to end. In fact, he learned all about his trade and how to use every tool necessary in his work. To-day things are greatly changed. The business of big cities has grown at the expense of the business of little towns. The latter have fewer stores because of the great mail-order business that has developed. Their shops do not make things from beginning to end as they used to do. This work has been largely taken over by great manufacturing concerns in the cities. The butcher gets most of his meat from a packing plant. The tailor no longer makes all the clothes for the community, and the shoemaker is now only a mender of shoes.

The result of all this is that boys and girls are being forced to leave the small towns and villages in order to earn their living. But, wherever they go, they find division of labor. In banks, offices, departmental stores, and, in fact, in almost all large business institutions, employees

are, so far as possible, confined to one duty. It may seem that there is little chance of change or promotion. But we must remember that the door of advancement is doing one's work well, and that it is possible to rise from the bottom to the top.

Occupations of Men and Women.—Men seldom do their work at home, while that is where in the past most women's work has lain. But many girls now fit themselves for some kind of useful work by which they can



IN A MODERN FACTORY

Note how closely the machines are placed together and how few men are required to work them.

earn their living. This makes it necessary for girls to take two kinds of special training. One is that required for home-making, and the other that required for the business vocation they may intend to follow.

There are a great many occupations which belong only to men; a rather small number in which only women engage; and many that are followed by both men and women. Men are physically stronger and therefore do the heavy work in

the fields and the woods, in the foundries and mills, and on railways and steamships, and, for various other reasons, the more responsible work in the large business concerns. Women do work requiring less physical strain, such as household management, private and public nursing, lecturing on foods and domestic topics, inspecting factories, illustrating, designing, home decorating, and operating telephones.

The occupations that are taken up by both men and women are the lighter kinds of farm work, such as fruit-growing and poultry-raising; light manufacturing and shipping; clerking in stores; clerical work, such as stenography and bookkeeping; civil service, library, and secretarial work, and missionary and welfare work. They also enter such professions as medicine, law, teaching, writing, and journalism, and find careers in art, music, and acting. During the Great War, many girls and women undertook heavy tasks in factories, on farms, and at the front, and their experience has tended to increase the number of occupations followed by women.

Business Enterprises.—Boys and girls generally begin as employees, that is, they work for someone else and do not own the business in which they are engaged. The number of those who serve, as compared with those who own and direct enterprises, is increasing year by year, because the owners of similar businesses are gradually coming together to form larger but fewer concerns. This, however, is largely offset by the great number of intermediate posts, from that of foreman right up to that of departmental manager, created by these new conditions. Workers of good habits, who are thrifty, industrious, and intelligent have excellent opportunities of filling these posts and even of becoming managers, partners, or owners. The sons of wealthy business men often think it wise to

begin at the bottom as employees and work up through the ranks, in order to fit themselves to take their places as managers or owners.

Considerations in the Choice of Life-work.—In deciding upon an occupation we should ask ourselves whether the particular work we have in view is safe and healthy, what remuneration we may expect, what the prospects are for permanent employment and for advancement, and what competition we may expect to meet.

Healthful Conditions and Safety.—It is very important to take up a healthful pursuit. Boys who have always lived in the open often find difficulty in learning how to protect their health, when they adopt occupations which keep them within doors and inactive.

Accidents are much more likely to happen in some kinds of work than in others. During the last three months of the year 1920, industrial accidents, that is, accidents which happened to people while they were engaged in their regular work of manufacturing, mining, building, etc., caused the death of two hundred and eighty-six persons in Canada. The occupations of mining and quarrying, railroading, lumbering, and building were responsible for one hundred and fifty-nine deaths, or fifty-nine per cent, and in point of danger they stood in the order named.

Remuneration and Opportunities for Advancement. The rate of wages, or salary paid, is another important consideration in choosing an occupation. In general, the amount of money which employers will pay for service depends upon the character of the work itself, the length of training necessary to do it well, the amount of competition, and the class of people for whom the work is done. Usually rough labor, which demands no special training and which almost anyone willing to work can do, does not command high wages. Neither do those positions which attract

people because the work is light and clean; this is specially so, when such positions can be filled by those of ordinary ability and with comparatively little preparation. Many clerical positions in stores and shops, and in the service of the government come within this class. High school teachers, professors in colleges, and specialists working for the government are usually well paid.

In many of the trades, where long apprenticeship and great skill is required, the difficulty is lack of continuous employment. For instance, in most parts of Canada bricklayers and stonemasons cannot carry on their trade during the winter months, and even during the other seasons rain or stormy weather frequently prevents them from working. In these trades the wages are comparatively high, but the average yearly wage is in many cases not equal to that of other trades in which indoor work is the rule.

The highest paid positions, however, are those occupied by directors and managers. A few people of exceptional brilliance, whether lawyers, doctors, dressmakers, actors, or others, can demand and receive remuneration that astonishes us. But, in general, those who draw large salaries are those who have risen to positions of command. Managers and managing directors of large enterprises, such as mines, banks, departmental stores, manufacturing plants, steamship and railway systems, all receive large salaries. Whole armies of men and women work under their direction. This direction must be wise. One false step may wreck the whole enterprise; one shrewd move may save a fortune. The very best brains are needed. Therefore, in order to attract and hold them, the rewards are relatively high.

Permanence.—Another important consideration is permanence. Here the clerical, professional, and business occupations have an advantage over those in which the workers toil with their hands. The former occupations

make greater demands upon ability and experience, and these qualities commonly grow with years. The latter occupations make greater demands upon bodily powers, and these are not so permanent. A worker is more exposed to accidents, and any injury to his body or to his health may rob him of his means of livelihood. Moreover, his physical strength declines with age. Therefore, a man in any one of the former occupations may render useful service for many years longer than a worker of the same age.

Competition.—Closely related to the questions of payment and permanence is that of competition. If great numbers of people enter any one occupation, the supply of that particular kind of labor becomes more than equal to the demand. In those occupations which require little or no special preparation, it may be said that the supply of labor is frequently in excess of the demand. The same is true of many of the lighter and cleaner occupations, especially where the work may be done equally well by men or women. There seems to be no limit to the number seeking positions as salesmen, clerks, and office help in general. In this field competition is keen, unemployment is prevalent, and wages, especially for beginners, are correspondingly low. But even in the trades, there is much competition and considerable unemployment. The general opinion is that the professions are already overcrowded.

Young people may seek occupations in which competition and unemployment are unknown. But they cannot find them, for they do not exist. Let us never forget, however, that even in the most crowded trade or profession there is always room at the top. It has been well said that

"The heights by great men reached and kept
Were not attained by sudden flight;

But they, while their companions slept,
Were toiling upward in the night."

Personal Considerations.—We must now turn our attention to another and perhaps more important side of the question of choosing an occupation. You must search your own heart and examine well your own equipment, that is, you must try to find out whether the occupation possesses interest for you, and you must at the same time satisfy yourself that you possess the qualities necessary to render useful service in that occupation. In the first place, then, let us ask the following questions: Do you like the occupation? Does it interest you? Do you prefer it to any other work in the world? Would you find real pleasure in doing it? If so, that is the occupation for you, provided you can give a favorable answer to the next question: Have you the necessary equipment and training to make a success of it?

In some occupations health, strength, and powers of endurance are particularly essential for success, and, therefore, there is no hope for those who lack these qualities. Some businesses demand great accuracy and capacity for detail, and, therefore, have small room for those who are not orderly and systematic. Success in some kinds of work depends upon powers of leadership, and, therefore, should be sought only by those who can win the confidence and cooperation of others. Other occupations bring a small money return, and, therefore, should be entered only by those who are willing to take part of their remuneration in other ways,—in the pleasure of doing good and in the esteem of their fellow citizens.

More and more the business world recognizes that certain qualities of character and disposition are essential to success. The short-tempered, disobliging, haughty, curt individual can no longer hold an important position

at the counter, the wicket, or the desk. Civility, courtesy, a sunny disposition, an even temper, a willingness to oblige and serve are now considered as essential qualities for all those whose occupations require them to meet the public.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Have you made up your mind to follow a particular vocation? If so, why did you decide on that vocation? Write down your reasons for and against your choice. Do you suit that vocation? Does it suit you? Have you consulted any person with reference to it? Was it a person upon whose judgment you could depend? Has anything you have read in this chapter shaken your decision?

2. Have you ever changed your mind in reference to the vocation you would like to follow? Why did you change your mind? Have you had any "try-out" experience? If so, what was the result?

3. What vocation do your parents wish you to follow? Why? Do you agree that you would make a success of that vocation?

4. What are the chances of obtaining employment in your own community, should you decide to follow the occupation of (*a*) a stonemason, (*b*) a shoemaker, (*c*) a stenographer, (*d*) a bricklayer, (*e*) a plumber, (*f*) a paper-hanger, (*g*) a plasterer, (*h*) a clerk, (*i*) a bookkeeper, (*j*) a machinist, (*k*) a seamstress, (*l*) a milliner, (*m*) a salesman, (*n*) a nurse, (*o*) a blacksmith?

5. Do you know any boys and girls who have left your community to take up a vocation elsewhere, and who have made a success? Do you know why they succeeded? Do you know any who have made a failure? Do you know why they failed?

6. Write down a list of the qualities which make for success in the business life. Do you possess these qualities? If you do not possess some of them, can you not acquire them? Why are politeness and courtesy held in such high esteem by employers?

7. Have you read closely the section in the text entitled "Considerations in the Choice of Life-work? Apply what is said in this section to yourself and to the vocation you have in mind. Read very carefully the section entitled "Personal Considerations."

8. Do you clearly understand the meaning of the sentence: "There is always room at the top"?

PART III

THE POLITICAL LIFE OF THE COMMUNITY

CHAPTER XV

THE GOVERNMENT OF CANADA

Fields of Government.—We have now studied the social life of the community and the economic life of the community. There yet remains to be considered one field, in many ways the most important of all, the field of the political life of the community, or, as we call it, *government.* In Canada, almost every one lives under three authorities—the *Dominion*, exercising control in matters which concern the welfare of the people as a whole; the *Provincial*, making and administering laws which have to do more particularly with the people within the province; and the *Municipal*, concerning itself with laws and the administration of laws within the smaller communities, that is, in the cities, towns, villages, and rural municipalities.

SECTION I. THE BRITISH SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

The Representative Principle.—In an earlier chapter we pointed out that we govern ourselves by means of elected representatives, for we are too many, too scattered, and too busy to come together into one assembly to govern ourselves directly. Therefore we have evolved the *representative system* of government. The *representatives* whom

we choose and to whom we give authority come together in an assembly called *Parliament*. A country so governed is *free and democratic*, because all the people share in choosing the government and in directing its actions.

Parliament.—Now, although this idea seems to us very simple, we must remember that it was difficult to work it out. Indeed, it took some hundreds of years to finish the task. It is one of the greatest glories of England, that she, more than any other nation in the world, was able to develop *the principle of representation* into a really workable system of government.

The system had its beginnings in the thirteenth century, when Simon de Montfort and Edward I began to call together assemblies, or parliaments, made up of the chief barons and churchmen, together with representatives of the shires or counties and of the boroughs or towns. These assemblies grew to be customary, and Parliament came to be looked upon as a necessary and regular institution.

From the beginning Parliament was made up of two *Houses*, as they are called: the *House of Lords*, or Upper House, which included the barons and bishops, and the *House of Commons*, or Lower House, where were gathered the representatives elected by the people. Then began a bitter struggle between the King and Parliament for the supreme power within the state, a struggle which lasted for several hundred years. At last, after the Great Rebellion of the seventeenth century and the "Glorious Revolution" of 1688, Parliament was finally established as the supreme authority in the realm.

The Cabinet System.—Though Parliament won the victory over the King, there was still a difficult problem. Parliament might pass laws, or do the *legislative* work of government, but how could such a large and clumsy body

enforce these laws and conduct the ordinary business of government? This problem of how to handle the *executive* or *administrative* work of government was solved by the development of the *Cabinet.* This executive work had been done by such men as the King might choose. But now, as it was the only way to avoid trouble, he selected them from among the party which had a majority in the House of Commons. In time, one of these men came to be the



THE IMPERIAL HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, LONDON

permanent head of this group of *ministers,*—the *Prime Minister* of to-day. He is the leader of the party which has a majority in the House of Commons; he appoints the other members of this group or *Cabinet;* and they are all responsible to him. If, by an election or in any other way, the Cabinet finds that it has lost the support of the majority of the House of Commons, it must resign. Then the King selects the leader who is supported by the majority, makes him Prime Minister, and asks him to form a government.

The great value of the cabinet system lies in its union of the legislative and the executive work of government. When the heads of the executive, that is, the Cabinet, find by their experience in governing that they need certain laws, they can secure them easily, because they are at the same time the leaders of the legislative body. Also, those who pass the laws, that is, the members of the House of Commons, can see that they are properly enforced. For, if the Cabinet, whose duty it is to carry out these laws, should not please the members of the House of Commons, they can turn it out at any time by an adverse vote. Thus we have *responsible government*. The government, or Cabinet, is responsible to the legislative body, and through them to the people, the electors; and there is no danger of the executive body and the legislative body pulling against each other.

Such was the idea of the system of parliamentary responsible government which developed in Great Britain, and, although it has many faults, this kind of democratic government is the best that has ever grown up in the world. It has been copied with various changes by other nations, and the British Parliament at Westminster is, therefore, called the "Mother of Parliaments." It has spread even to such oriental states as Turkey, Egypt, China, and Japan, and is being gradually adopted in India. Naturally, all the British Dominions, including Canada, have this form of government.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Tell the story of how Simon de Montfort came to call the first Parliament. How did Henry VIII agree with Parliament? Elizabeth? James I? Give a brief account of the struggle between Charles I and his Parliament. What was the Petition of Right? What were the results of this struggle? How was the position of Parliament affected by the Revolution of 1688?

2. How was the executive work of government carried on before the use of our present cabinet system? From your History of England find out what effect the attitude of William III had on the cabinet system. What influence did the ascendency of Walpole have on the increasing influence of the Cabinet? What effect did the Reform Bill of 1832 have on the Cabinet?

3. Why does the King not attend the meetings of the Cabinet? Has he the right to do so? Has the King the right to refuse to sign any bills passed by Parliament? Why does he never do so? Has he the right to disregard the advice of his Cabinet? What do we mean when we speak of the *veto power* of the King?

4. Point out how the principle of responsibility runs all through the British parliamentary system.

5. What do we mean when we say that Great Britain is a true democracy? What is the part of the King in the government of the country?

SECTION II. RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT IN CANADA

Colonial Government.—From the last section we have learned how the present system of responsible government grew up in Great Britain. We shall now study how this same system developed in our own country. Though Canada is now a Dominion and one of the group of nations which make up the British Empire, yet we must remember that our Dominion began as a colony, first of France and then of Great Britain, and that this fact has influenced both our history and our institutions.

When the New World and the new routes to the far East were discovered by adventurous seamen about the beginning of the sixteenth century, the countries of western Europe set out to build up empires across the seas. Foremost in this work were Spain, Portugal, France, Holland, and England. All these countries looked upon their colonies in much the same way. Each country claimed that her colonies existed only for the good of the motherland, and governed them accordingly. The best positions in the colonial service were given to men from the home land.

The colonies were permitted to trade only with the mother country. They were not allowed to build up any industries which might take away business from those at home. In a hundred different ways they were kept from developing or progressing, for fear that they might interfere with what were thought to be the interests of the mother country. Even Great Britain treated her colonies in this way, so far as trade and industry were concerned, but in government she allowed many of them to have Legislative Assemblies, or law-making bodies, and so to some extent to govern themselves.

Changes in colonial Government.—Now this plan of governing the colonies was not a good one, and, if persisted in, could result only in the colonies breaking away from the mother country just as soon as they began to feel their power. European nations, if ever they were to build up empires overseas, had to learn the lessons that colonies must be allowed to govern themselves, and that they must be left free to develop their own industries and to trade as they wished. If left free, the colonies might grow into powerful states, attached by gratitude and friendship to the motherland, thus making her much more prosperous and powerful than before. Great Britain was the first of the European nations to grasp this thought, although it took even her some time to understand it completely. It is largely because of this freedom allowed to her colonies that Great Britain has continued to be the central power in a great British Empire, the greatest and the freest that the world has ever known.

One important event which took place towards the end of the eighteenth century helped to teach Great Britain this great lesson in empire building. This was the American Revolution, which began in 1775. The thirteen British colonies in North America, dissatisfied with the treatment

which they were receiving from the mother country, broke out into open rebellion, and, after a struggle lasting for nine years, gained their independence. Further, the new doctrine of free trade was beginning to spread itself through Britain. This was the teaching that the country would become more prosperous, if trade and industry were released from all customs duties and allowed to grow freely and naturally.

The result of all these influences was that Great Britain gradually changed her views regarding her relationship with her colonies, and began to allow such of them as were fit for self-government to regulate their own affairs under the same system of responsible government that prevailed in the motherland itself. This principle of complete responsible self-government for each of the parts is the foundation on which the modern British Empire is built up. The policy was first worked out in Canada, and later was used in establishing the government of other colonies, such as Newfoundland, New Zealand, Australia, and South Africa.

Responsible Government in the Colonies.—The full and complete application of the British system of *parliamentary responsible government* to Canada, or to any other part of the Empire, means:

1. That the people in the colony shall be free to elect representatives to a Parliament of their own.

2. That that Parliament shall have power to pass and to enforce laws dealing with all those things which concern the colony itself.

3. That that Parliament shall have complete control over the revenue and expenditure of the colony.

4. That the representative of the King in the colony must choose as his advisers, that is, the government, the leaders of the party, or group, which has the largest following in the popular chamber of that Parliament, that is, the chamber which directly represents the people.

5. That the advisers of the King's representative must be members of that Parliament and must in every way be *responsible* to the popular chamber of that Parliament for their actions.

6. That the representative of the King must either call for the resignation of his advisers, or allow them to resign, the moment that they have lost the confidence of the popular chamber of that Parliament.

7. That the representative of the King must, in all matters of interest only to the colony, act according to the advice of his chosen advisers.

Responsible Government in Canada.—We have not space to tell the long story of how responsible government developed in Canada. All we need to know, however, is that as early as 1758 an Assembly was granted to Nova Scotia, and that the Constitutional Act, passed by the Imperial Parliament in 1791, gave to Upper and Lower Canada their first representative Assemblies. These Assemblies, almost at once, commenced a long struggle with the British government to gain the right to fix their own taxes, to control their entire revenue and expenditure, and to make the Governor's advisers, known as the Executive Council, responsible in every way to the Legislative Assembly, that is, to the representatives of the people.

The struggle lasted for many years. It was only slowly, as our leaders grew in strength and wisdom and as liberal ideas developed in the mother country, that the old colonial policy was abandoned for the new one of colonial self-government.

At last, however, by the middle of the nineteenth century, owing partly to the rebellions of Louis Joseph Papineau and William Lyon Mackenzie, partly to the common sense and moderation of Canadians like Robert Baldwin, Louis Lafontaine, and Joseph Howe, and partly to the wise and

generous assistance of British statesmen like the Earl of Durham and Earl Grey, and governors like Lord Sydenham and the Earl of Elgin, responsible government was firmly and finally established in Canada. Many small matters still remained to be settled and, in fact, were not settled until much later, but we may say that from the day in 1849 when the Earl of Elgin signed the Rebellion Losses Bill, following the advice of his chosen advisers in defiance of popular clamor, the *principle of responsibility* has been the basis of our system of government in Canada.

Questions and Suggestions

1. What colonies were owned by France, Spain, Portugal, Holland, and England during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries? Which of these colonies now belong to those nations?

2. Find out how Great Britain obtained her most important colonies. What colonies has she lost during the last two hundred years? What were the chief causes of the American Revolution?

3. What provisions for the government of Upper and Lower Canada were made by the Constitutional Act? Tell all you can about the "Family Compact," the "clergy reserves," and "seignorial tenure." How were these connected with the struggle for responsible government? What do you mean by the "Durham Report"? What were the causes of the rebellions led by Mackenzie and Papineau?

4. Find out what you can about Robert Baldwin, Louis Lafontaine, and Joseph Howe. What was the principle involved in the signing by Lord Elgin of the Rebellion Losses Bill?

5. Write a brief sketch of the struggle for responsible government in Canada from 1812 to 1849.

SECTION III. THE CANADIAN CONFEDERATION

Confederation.—You are familiar from your study of Canadian history with the reasons for and the steps leading up to the confederation of the British provinces in North America. As this event, however, is such an outstanding landmark in the history of the British Empire, it may be profitable to recall its most important features.

In the year 1860, there were five British colonies in the eastern part of North America, —Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland. On the far-away Pacific were two other British colonies—Vancouver Island and British Columbia—and lying between the colonies to the west and those to the east was the enormous territory governed by the Hudson's Bay Company. All the territory, therefore, north of the United States, with the exception of Alaska, belonged to Great Britain. The eastern colonies, however, knew little of the Pacific colonies, and to both of them the Hudson Bay Territory was little more than a name.



JOHN A. MACDONALD
The first Premier of the Dominion of Canada.

The danger of war between Great Britain and the United States in 1861 over the seizure of the British steamer *Trent* had drawn the attention of the Atlantic Provinces—New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island—to the danger of their undefended position, and had led them to consider the advantages of a union among themselves. In fact, the three provinces had gone so far as to arrange a meeting of delegates at Charlottetown in 1864 to discuss the question in all its bearings.

Meanwhile, political affairs in Canada were in a very bad way. In 1841, by the Union Act, the two provinces of Upper Canada and Lower Canada were united into one province under the name of Canada. Almost from the beginning, there was friction between the two sections of the new province, until at last the trouble, supplemented

by local differences and jealousies, grew to such an extent that it became impossible for a government to retain office for any length of time. Political affairs were at a deadlock.

It then occurred to the leaders of both political parties that the best way out of the difficulty would be the formation of a *federal union*, that is, to give to each section a Legislature to deal with its local affairs, and at the same time to form a strong central government to take charge of the affairs of the country as a whole. In 1864, George Brown, the leader of the Liberal party, joined with John A. Macdonald, the leader of the Conservative party, in forming a government for the purpose of carrying out such a union. Eight representatives from Canada, including Macdonald, Brown, and Georges E. Cartier, attended the meeting at Charlottetown of the delegates of the Atlantic Provinces, and presented the plan of a wider union, which might in time stretch from the Atlantic to the Pacific and include almost the entire northern half of the continent. The magnificence of the idea appealed to the delegates from the Atlantic Provinces, and they agreed to meet at a later date with representatives of the other British provinces to go further into the question.



GEORGE BROWN

Delegates from Canada, the Atlantic Provinces, and Newfoundland met in the Quebec Conference in 1864 for the purpose of agreeing upon a plan. These "Fathers of Confederation," as they have since been called, drew up a scheme for a federal union, which was submitted to the provinces. But unexpected difficulties interfered.

Though the Legislature of Canada accepted it, the plan was rejected by New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland. Even in Nova Scotia, Charles Tupper, the Premier, hesitated to lay the matter before the Legislature. It looked as though the whole idea would have to be abandoned.

The notice given by the United States that the Reciprocity Treaty, which had been in force for ten years between that country and the British provinces, would cease at the end of another year was a strong factor in renewing the sentiment in favor of confederation. It was generally felt that the growth of an interprovincial trade might partly make up for the loss of business with the country to the south. Further, the invasion of the provinces at various points by bands of Fenians from the United States had the effect of drawing them more closely together. The immediate result was the election in New Brunswick of a government under Samuel Leonard Tilley favorable to confederation, and the passing of the Quebec scheme by the Legislature of Nova Scotia.



GEORGES E. CARTIER

The British government, which had all along favored the union, was anxious that it should take place as soon as possible, and delegates from Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia now proceeded to London to take up the question with the Imperial authorities. Sitting under the chairmanship of John A. Macdonald, the delegates drew up a bill, which was at once passed into law by the British Parliament. This Act, known as the *British North America Act*, is,

with its various amendments, an important part of Canada's constitution. Though an Imperial statute, it was framed by Canadians for the government of the Canadian people, and was passed by the Imperial Parliament almost exactly as submitted to them by the Canadian delegation. The British North America Act came into force on July 1st, 1867, and on that date the Dominion of Canada had its birth.

At first the Dominion was made up of only Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia. In 1869, the Dominion secured the Hudson Bay Territory, and in the following year it organized part of this as the province of Manitoba. In 1871, British Columbia joined Confederation, and two years later Prince Edward Island was added. In 1905, the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan were formed. Of all the British provinces in North America, Newfoundland alone stands aloof. Thus the Dominion has grown from four provinces to nine provinces and two territories, stretching from ocean to ocean and embracing almost the entire northern half of the continent, and the dream of the "Fathers of Confederation" has been realized.



CHARLES TUPPER

Necessity for Definition of Powers.—Though we often say that we are ruled by three governments, the Dominion, the provincial, and the municipal, we have in reality only two final governmental authorities in Canada. The municipal government derives all its powers from the provincial government, but the powers of the Dominion government

and the powers of the provincial governments are independent of each other. Each is supreme in its own sphere. Therefore, it is of great importance that the powers of these two authorities be set forth clearly and fully. Otherwise, they might clash, or they might be so limited that sometimes neither could do what is necessary.

Powers of the Provinces.—Under the provisions of the British North America Act, the province may levy direct taxation, such as an income tax and taxes on property, and may borrow money on the credit of the province. It manages its own public lands and may sell them, if it so desires.* It is solely responsible for education within the province, subject, however, to existing rights and the rights of minorities. It regulates its own civil service, and has control over hospitals, asylums, and charitable institutions, and also over the prisons and reform schools owned by itself. It incorporates companies for the purpose of carrying on business within the province, provides for the solemnization of marriage, and legislates in regard to property and civil, or private, rights.



SAMUEL LEONARD TILLEY

The province also has control over all municipal institutions, such as district, county, village, town, or city organization. It administers justice within the province, that is, it

*At present Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta do not control the public lands within their boundaries.

enforces both Dominion and provincial laws, and provides for the punishment by fine and imprisonment of those who break provincial laws. It controls all local works and undertakings, except such steamship lines, canals, railways, telegraphs, and other enterprises as extend outside the province, and such works, entirely within the province, as are declared by the Dominion government to be for the good of Canada as a whole. It is also empowered to grant licenses to shops, saloons, taverns, and other kinds of business. In a word, it exercises authority in all matters which concern the province alone, apart from any other of the provinces. By merely glancing at the list, we can see what important powers our constitution gives to the provincial Legislatures.

Powers of the Dominion.—The British North America Act provides that all matters which are not definitely given to the provinces are to be under the control of the Dominion Parliament. The Act goes on to name some of the powers assigned to the Dominion. The list may seem a long one, but, if you will examine it carefully, you will see that all these powers concern all the people of all the provinces, that is, the people of Canada as a whole, no matter in what province they may live. We may note a few of the most important of these powers.

The Dominion controls the property belonging to Canada and is responsible for the public debt, that is, the money owed by the country. It regulates trade and commerce, raises money by taxes, and borrows money on the credit of Canada. It has charge of the postal service, the taking of the census, the defence of Canada, the fisheries, navigation and shipping, light-houses, currency and coinage, banking and paper money, savings banks, and weights and measures. It provides for the protection of patents,

trade-marks, and copyright in books, photographs, and paintings.

The Dominion is also responsible for the Indians and the lands reserved for them. It makes laws in regard to the naturalization of foreigners and controls marriage and divorce. It alone is empowered to deal with the criminal law, and it manages the penitentiaries. It also appoints and deals with the civil service of Canada.

A complete list of the powers of the provinces and of the Dominion is given in *Appendix A* and *Appendix B*.

Divided and disputed Powers.—In addition to those matters which are definitely assigned either to the Dominion or to the provincial governments, there are two or three which, to a certain extent, are under the control of both. For instance, the provinces have the sole right to make laws relating to education, but, at the same time, the Dominion has the power to protect the educational rights of a Protestant or a Roman Catholic minority, which in any province at the time of Confederation had the right to separate schools. Similarly, the provinces have the power to make laws relating to agriculture and immigration, but, if any such law is contrary to a Dominion law, it is *null and void*, and the Dominion law stands.

Although the "Fathers of Confederation" tried to make the powers of the provincial and the Dominion governments so clear that no argument would ever arise regarding them, it was hardly to be expected that they would succeed. It is not surprising that a great many cases have arisen in which it was doubtful whether the Dominion or the province had a right to make the law. Then it has generally been left to the courts of law to decide to which government the British North America Act has given the right.

In a dispute, however, the Dominion government has a certain advantage over the provinces. It has the

power to *disallow*, or set aside, any law passed by a province, provided that this is done within a year after the law has been passed. It is well to note that this is a power which is and should be little used, because, if it were frequently employed, the provinces would naturally resent the continued interference and trouble would be the result. It is a power, indeed, which should be used only when necessary to keep peace and unity within the Dominion.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Find out about "the *Trent* affair," the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854, and the Fenian Raids. What influence did each of these have in bringing about the federation of the British provinces?

2. What provision did the Union Act make for the government of Canada? How did the Act work in the upper province? What is meant by "Rep by Pop?" What part did John A. Macdonald play in bringing about Confederation? George Brown? Georges E. Cartier? Charles Tupper? Samuel Leonard Tilley?

3. Canada is called a Dominion, Australia a Commonwealth, and South Africa a Union. John A. Macdonald wished to call the new Canadian union the "Kingdom of Canada." Would this have been a suitable name? What is the meaning of "Dominion"?

4. Why is a federal union particularly suited to Canada? The United States is also a federal union. Can you find out how the forms of government of the two countries differ? Can you see any objections to a federal union? Have any difficulties arisen in the working out of our constitution? Is it right that the Dominion government should control provincial legislation? In what way does it control it? What is the value of the power of disallowance?

5. Examine the powers given to the provinces and to the Dominion. Tell why the division is suitable? Is it satisfactory? How may the interests of the provinces clash with those of the Dominion?

SECTION IV. THE PARLIAMENT OF CANADA

The Governor-General.—In Great Britain, as we have seen, Parliament is made up of *the King*, *the House of Lords*, and *the House of Commons*. In Canada it is made

up of *the King, the Senate,* and *the House of Commons.* For many reasons it is impossible for the King to take a personal part in the government of Canada, so he is represented by the Governor-General. We should not forget, however, that the King is just as much King of Canada as he is of Great Britain. The title of our present sovereign is "George V, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain, Ireland, and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India." We should remember also that the Governor-General represents the King and not the British government.



RIDEAU HALL, OTTAWA
The residence of the Governor-General.

"He is the visible link between the United Kingdom and Canada, and his office emphasizes the unity of the Crown within the Empire."

The Governor-General is appointed by the King on the advice of the British government, but, before the appointment is made, the advice of the Canadian government is sought and its approval obtained. He is usually a British statesman or soldier of distinction. He is the constitutional head of the Canadian state, and, as such, must in all Canadian affairs act upon the advice of his Cabinet, that is, his responsible ministers. He takes no part in political struggles and favors neither the government nor the opposition. Like the King, he does not attend meetings of the Cabinet, but all legislation passed in Parliament, as well as all official acts performed by the Cabinet, must receive his assent. He has the power to dismiss his Cabinet, but in such

an event he must find other ministers who will be prepared to support his actions before the House of Commons and the people of Canada. His term of office is five years, and his salary of £10,000 a year is paid by the Dominion government.

The House of Commons.—As in Great Britain, so in Canada, the government is democratic, that is, it is con-



THE PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS OF CANADA, OTTAWA

trolled by the people, who express their will by electing members to the House of Commons from time to time. According to the British North America Act, a general election must take place at least once every five years. Parliament, however, may be and usually is dissolved and a general election held more often than that. The constitution provides for the taking of a *census* of the population

of the Dominion every ten years, and, based on the result of this census, each province is given representation in the House of Commons in proportion to its population.

Quebec is always given sixty-five members, and the representation of the other provinces is in proportion. Thus, if Quebec has a population of 2,250,000 and is given sixty-five members in the House of Commons, Quebec has one member for every 34,615 people in the province, and, therefore, each of the other provinces will have one member for every 34,615 inhabitants. Prince Edward Island has always four members in the House of Commons, because, by an amendment to the British North America Act, each province must have at least as many members in the Commons as it has representatives in the Senate.

By an Act of the Dominion Parliament, based on the census of 1921 and assented to by the Governor-General on July 19th, 1924, the House of Commons consists of 245 members distributed as follows:

Province	Population 1921	Number of Members
Prince Edward Island	88,615	4
Nova Scotia	523,837	14
New Brunswick	387,876	11
Quebec	2,361,199	65
Ontario	2,933,662	82
Manitoba	610,118	17
Saskatchewan	757,510	21
Alberta	588,454	16
British Columbia	524,582	14
Yukon Territory	4,157	1

For election purposes the provinces are divided by Act of the Dominion Parliament into *electoral districts*, or

constituencies, each of which generally elects one member to Parliament. In Canada, practically all men and women who are British subjects, twenty-one years of age, and who have lived in the constituency for a certain length of time, have the right to vote. The voting is done by secret ballot, so that no man can dictate to another how he must vote. The members whom the electors choose go to



THE CHAMBER OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS, OTTAWA

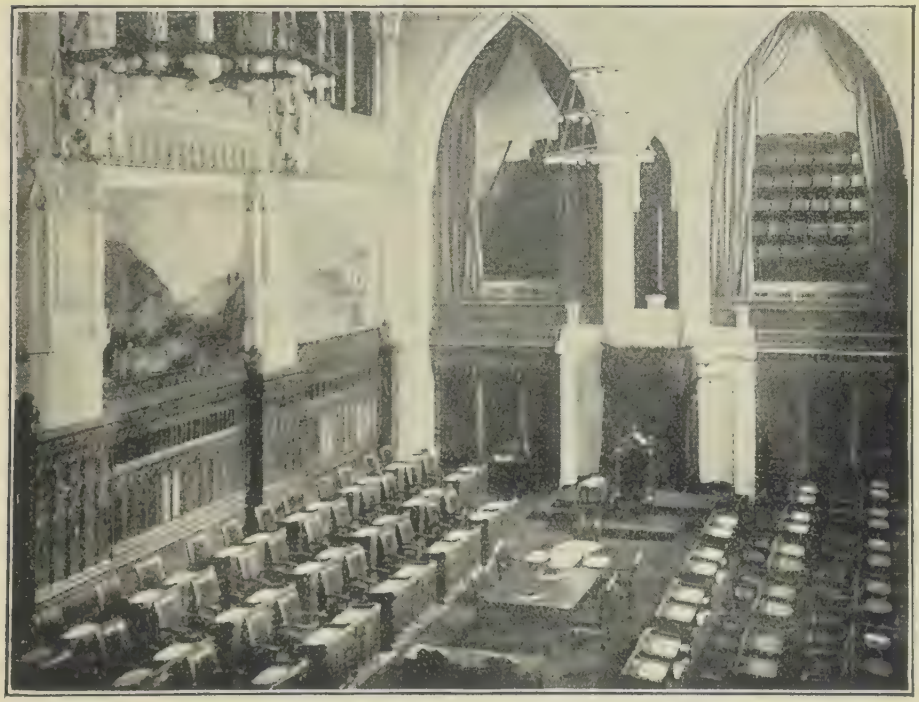
Ottawa, the capital of the Dominion, and there take their seats in the House of Commons. To be eligible for election to the Commons, a man or woman must be a British subject and twenty-one years of age. It is not necessary that the member should be a resident of the constituency which he is elected to represent, but he must be a resident of Canada. A member of the House of Commons may be expelled from

the House by a majority vote of his fellow members. Each member is paid a salary, called an *indemnity*, of $4,000 a session. He is also allowed his actual expenses in travelling to and from Ottawa at the opening and close of each session of Parliament, and, in addition, he is entitled to a free pass on all railways in Canada.

The proceedings of the House of Commons are presided over by the *Speaker*, who is elected by the House immediately after the opening of a new Parliament, and who holds office during the full term of that Parliament. He must be a member of the House itself, but he does not take any part in the debates. He has no vote, except in a tie, when he has the casting vote. He is usually nominated by the Premier, or by the government leader in the House, and his election is generally assured. Although usually a strong supporter of the government, from the moment he takes office he must act in the most impartial manner, showing no favor either to government or to opposition. "He is, in fact, the representative of the House itself, in its powers, its proceedings, and its dignity. He is responsible for the due enforcement of the rules, rights, and privileges of the House, and when he rises he is to be heard in silence." A *Deputy-Speaker* is also elected, who, from time to time, may relieve the Speaker in the discharge of his duties. When the House goes into Committee of the Whole, the Deputy-Speaker presides over its deliberations.

Other officers of the House of Commons are the *Clerk*, who has charge of the records of the House, and the *Sergeant-at-arms*, who precedes the Speaker upon his entering and leaving the House, carrying the mace, the symbol of the authority of the House of Commons. It is the duty of the Sergeant-at-arms to remove from the House, at the command of the Speaker, any member whose conduct has brought such punishment upon him.

The Senate. Following the model of the Imperial Parliament, the Canadian Parliament is made up of two Houses, because the Fathers of Confederation feared the danger of hasty and faulty legislation, and felt the necessity of guarding the interests of the different parts of the country. Therefore, we have a second body to discuss and to change, if it thinks necessary, the laws drawn up and passed



THE SENATE CHAMBER, OTTAWA

by the other. The second House is called the *Senate*, and its members are known as *Senators*. The Senators are not chosen by the people, but are appointed by the Governor-General on the advice of his Cabinet.

For the purpose of representation in the Senate, Canada is divided into four divisions, each division having an equal number of Senators: (1) *Ontario* with 24 Senators; (2)

Quebec with 24 Senators; (3) *the Maritime Provinces* and *Prince Edward Island* with 24 Senators, 10 representing Nova Scotia, 10 representing New Brunswick, and 4 representing Prince Edward Island; (4) *the Western Provinces* with 24 Senators, 6 representing Manitoba, 6 representing Saskatchewan, 6 representing Alberta, and 6 representing British Columbia—96 in all. The Governor-General, however, upon the direction of the King, may appoint *four* or *eight* additional Senators representing equally the four senatorial divisions of Canada, but no further appointments may be made to any division until such division is represented by 24 Senators and no more. In the exercise of this power there is little doubt that both the King and the Governor-General will act upon the advice of the Canadian Cabinet. So far, no appointments have been made to the Senate under this power given to the Governor-General by the constitution.

In order to be appointed to the Senate, a man must be thirty years of age, a British subject, the owner of property worth at least $4,000 over and above all encumbrances, and must live in the province he is appointed to represent. In Quebec he must live within the electoral district for which he is appointed or must have his property qualifications there. A Senator does not lose his position when Parliament is dissolved, but continues to be a Senator as long as he lives, unless he resigns, or moves from the province, or ceases to be a British subject by becoming a citizen of some other country, or becomes bankrupt, or commits a crime, or fails to attend the Senate for two consecutive sessions. All these regulations were made so that Canada might have as Senators intelligent, fair-minded men, who will give wise and deep thought to all legislation which comes before them. Senators receive the same indemnity as the members of the House of Commons.

The Speaker of the Senate is not elected by the Senators, but is appointed for the full term of Parliament by the Governor-General on the advice of his Cabinet. The Speaker has a vote on all questions which may come before the Senate, but, in the event of a tie vote, the motion is declared lost. Fifteen members of the Senate constitute a quorum of that body.

The officers of the Senate are the *Clerk*, who has charge of the senatorial records, and the *Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod*, whose duties correspond with those of the Sergeant-at-arms in the House of Commons.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Who is the Governor-General of Canada? Where does he live? Compare his powers with those of the King. What is his place in a responsible government? Who was the first Governor-General of Canada? Would it be a good idea to have the Governor-General appointed by the Dominion government? to have him elected by the people?

2. Who is the Speaker of the House of Commons? of the Senate? Tell some of the duties of each.

3. Did you know that immediately prior to Confederation members of the Legislative Council in Canada were elected by the people? Why did the "Fathers of Confederation" decide to make the Senate an appointed body? Would it be a good plan to have the Senators elected by the provincial Legislatures? Should an appointed body like the Senate have the power to defeat the will of the House of Commons, the direct representatives of the people? Should the Senate be abolished or reformed? What is its value at present?

4. Why does the British North America Act give power to appoint four or eight additional Senators? Can you think of any circumstances which might make it necessary to appoint such additional senators?

5. From your study of British History, compare the duties of the Canadian House of Commons with those of the British House of Commons; the duties of the Senate with those of the House of Lords. Has the House of Commons any control over the House of Lords?

6. Find out all you can about how the census is taken. When was the last census taken in your province?

SECTION V. THE CABINET AND ITS DUTIES

As we have seen, the British cabinet system has been copied in Canada. The Governor-General chooses as his *Premier*, or *Prime Minister*, the leader of the party which has the largest number of supporters in the House of Commons, and which, therefore, best represents the people. Until within the last few years, there were in Canada only two great political parties, the Liberals and the Conservatives, so in the past it has been very easy for the Governor-General to make his choice. Now, however, with the growth of the Progressive Party and the Labor Party, in addition to the two older parties, it might easily happen that no one party would have a clear majority in the House of Commons, that is, that no one party would have more supporters than all the others together. The duty of the Governor-General would, therefore, be attended with difficulty. He would probably call upon the leader of the largest group to form a government, unless two or more of the groups agreed on a leader, who would thus possess a majority in the House and have no difficulty in carrying on the government. A Cabinet formed by such a union is known as a *Coalition Cabinet*.



CONFEDERATION HALL
This is one of the beautiful halls in the Parliament Buildings, Ottawa.

The Cabinet. When the Premier has been selected, he sets about forming his Cabinet. He tries to include in it the ablest and most influential men among his supporters,

and, so far as possible, to have each of the provinces represented. When he has chosen his ministers, or, as we say, *formed his Cabinet*, and decided upon the department of government of which each is to have charge, he recommends them to the Governor-General, who formally appoints them to office. The Prime Minister is responsible for the choice of his cabinet ministers, and he can at any time demand their resignation or can dismiss them. Members of the Cabinet must have a seat in either the House of Commons or the Senate. As there is a salary attached to the position of a cabinet minister who has charge of a department of the public service, the new minister, if a member of the House of Commons, must submit himself to the electors of his constituency to gain their approval of his conduct in accepting "an office of emolument under the Crown," that is, a paid office in the gift of the government. This is an old English custom which is still retained in the Dominion. The Premier and his Cabinet are commonly called *the government*.

A cabinet minister is placed in charge of each department of the public service and is responsible for the efficient administration of that department. He must attend to the preparation of legislation that concerns his department, must present its financial claims to the House of Commons, and must be prepared to defend his administration before Parliament. If the minister in charge is a member of the Senate, the duty of presenting his estimates is delegated to another minister who has a seat in the House of Commons.

Departments of the Public Service.—Though each department has a minister, each minister does not always have a department. Frequently the Cabinet includes one or more ministers who have no department to administer. These are said to be *ministers without portfolio*. They receive no salary as members of the Cabinet.

The list of cabinet ministers *as they are at present* is as follows, together with the department or departments to which each is assigned:

The *Premier* is also *Secretary of State for External Affairs*, that is, he conducts the official correspondence of the government with the other countries of the Empire and with foreign nations. He is *President of the Privy Council*, and, as such, he presides over the meetings of the Cabinet.

The *Minister of Finance* has charge of the finances of the Dominion. He supervises the estimates to be laid before Parliament and decides upon the policy of the government in levying taxes.

The *Minister of Railways and Canals* has charge of everything affecting the interests of the railways and canals of the country. His duties are not so important as they formerly were, because all the railways belonging to the government have recently been placed in charge of a president and a board of directors.

The *Postmaster-General* has charge of the postal service of the Dominion and everything relating to the mails.

The *Minister of Health* has to do with the general health of all the public. He is also *Minister of Soldiers' Civil Re-establishment* and as such he is entrusted with the duty of assisting the soldiers who took part in the Great War to take their places once more in civil life.

The *Minister of Justice* and *Attorney-General for Canada* has charge of the administration of justice and generally of all legal matters connected with the government. He is responsible for the administration of the penitentiaries.

The *Minister of National Revenue* has charge of the collection of the customs and excise duties and of the income and sales taxes levied by the Dominion government. He also has charge of the inspection of weights and measures.

The *Minister of Marine and Fisheries* superintends all

matters relating to navigation and the fisheries, such as harbors, lighthouses, safety of navigation, inspection of shipping, fishing regulations, etc.

The *Minister of Immigration and Colonization* deals with everything touching immigration and the placing of settlers on the land.

The *Minister of Trade and Commerce* has to do with everything connected with the trade and commerce of the country. He has also charge of the census and the issue of reports connected therewith. He administers the law relating to the registration of patents, copyrights, and trade-marks.

The *Secretary of State* is the official correspondent of the government. He also has charge of the government printing bureau and distributes the stationery to all the departments of government.

The *Minister of the Interior* has charge of the government of the North-West Territories. He is also *Superintendent-General of Indian Affairs*, and, as such, is concerned with the welfare of the Indians of Canada. He is, in addition, *Minister of Mines* and deals with everything affecting the mining industry in the Dominion as a whole.

The *Minister of Agriculture*, as the name implies, deals with everything affecting the farming interests of the Dominion. He has charge of the experimental farms and stations throughout Canada.

The *Minister of Labor* concerns himself with everything affecting the interests of the workers in Canada. Much of his time is taken up in the endeavor to settle or prevent labor disputes.

The *Minister of Public Works* deals with the erection and management of all public works required for the conduct of business, with the exception of railways and canals.

The *Minister of National Defence* has charge of the defence of Canada, including the land, naval, and air forces. He

supervises military camps and forts, the Royal Military College at Kingston, and the naval barracks at Halifax and Esquimault.

The *Solicitor-General* advises the government in legal matters and acts as its counsel before the courts. Frequently the Solicitor-General is not a member of the Cabinet.

The Premier, in addition to his sessional indemnity, receives a salary of $15,000 a year. Each minister who has charge of a department receives a salary of $10,000 a year in addition to his sessional indemnity, with the exception of the Solicitor-General, who receives $7,000 a year.



THE COURT OF HONOR
This is another of the beautiful halls in the Parliament Buildings, Ottawa.

The Leader of the Opposition.—Until within the last few years there were usually but two political parties in the House of Commons, the government party and the opposition party, the former supporting the government of the day and the latter opposing it. Up to the year 1906, there was no official recognition given by Parliament to the leader of the opposition party, but in that year legislation was passed providing for an annual salary to such leader. The present salary of the leader of the opposition is $10,000, equal to that of a cabinet minister.

After the election of 1921, it was found that there were four political parties represented in the House of Commons, Liberals, Progressives, Conservatives, and Labor. No one party had a majority in the House, but the leader of the

Liberal party, as the choice of the largest group, was called upon by the Governor-General to form a government. The official opposition is usually considered to be the largest group opposed to the government. By this rule the Progressives should have been the opposition. But as the Conservatives had been the party in charge of the government prior to the election, the members of that party were recognized as the official opposition, and their leader in the House as the official leader of the opposition.

The Civil Service.—In each of the departments of public service that we have just mentioned, hundreds and sometimes thousands of clerks and other persons are employed. These are called *civil servants* to distinguish them from the soldiers and sailors, who are *military* or *naval* servants of the government. Those who live and work in Ottawa, the capital of the Dominion, are called the *inside civil service*, while those, like customs and excise officers and postal employees, who are scattered throughout the country, are known as the *outside civil service*.



THE WESTERN BLOCK
This is one of the large government departmental blocks at Ottawa.

In earlier days men and women were usually given positions in the civil service as a reward for having done something to help their own political party. This system, known as the *patronage system*, was very bad, because, through it, positions were often given to people who were not able to do the work. Further, when one party was defeated

and the other came into power, many of those appointed by the old party lost their positions, not on account of inefficiency, but to provide places for supporters of the new government.

This old system has been largely done away with, and men and women are now, for the most part, given positions and promoted only when they show that they are able to do their work efficiently. The civil service, both inside and outside, is now under the control of the *Civil Service Commission*, a body independent of politics. Ability and fitness are demanded in every applicant for a position in the civil service. This is a great reform, for the country depends very largely upon the civil service for good government.

Harmony in the Cabinet. By long experience, it was found that harmony in the Cabinet was necessary. This means that no member of the Cabinet will take any important action or make any important statement without the consent of the rest. Each minister is responsible for the opinions of the Cabinet as a whole. Harmony is secured by frequent meetings at which all questions of *government policy* are decided. Moreover, it must not be forgotten that the members of the Cabinet are heads of departments, and that these meetings are necessary to keep the various departments of government working together smoothly. If any minister cannot agree with the Premier and the other members of the Cabinet on any important question of policy, he either resigns voluntarily or is forced to do so by the Premier.

All the sessions of the Cabinet are secret; each minister on taking office is required by law to swear an oath not to tell what takes place in a cabinet meeting. This enables the ministers to settle their differences in private, and to preserve the harmony of the Cabinet. Further, it would be

against the public interest to divulge many of the questions discussed in the Cabinet.

The Privy Council.—The constitution of Canada does not recognize any such body as the Cabinet, but it does recognize and in fact provides for a body known as the *Privy Council.* Cabinet ministers, as soon as they assume office, are sworn in as members of the Privy Council, and they remain members of that body as long as they live. The Privy Council, therefore, includes all those men still living who have at any time held cabinet positions. It may also contain men who have never held office under the Crown, but who are sworn in as members of the Privy Council as a recognition of distinguished services rendered to the Dominion.

A recent writer on the Canadian constitution says: "The Privy Council never meets as a body, since it contains the members of former administrations, but *the Cabinet is considered to consist of* such of the privy councillors (who are members of Parliament) as best and most efficiently represent the views of the dominant political party. It is that part of the Privy Council called the Cabinet which advises the Governor-General."

A command issued by the Privy Council and signed by the Governor-General is called an *order-in-council* and has all the force of law. Much of the work of government is carried on by means of such orders, which are based upon powers given to the Privy Council by Parliament.

Summary.—The main thing to remember about the Cabinet is that it is simply one means by which the people govern themselves. Just as the people, through Parliament, make their own laws and decide how they will tax themselves, so, through the Cabinet, the people see that their own laws are obeyed and that the work of government is carried on. If the people, either through their representatives in

the House of Commons or at a general election, express their disapproval of the Cabinet, it will be compelled to resign.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Show clearly the difference between the legislative work and the executive work of Parliament. What do you mean by the Cabinet? How did the word get its present meaning? What are the advantages and the disadvantages of the cabinet system?

2. Who is the Premier of Canada? Who was the last Premier? Who is the leader of the opposition? What position did he formerly occupy?

3. What are the duties of the Premier? Would you say that he is the most important person in the government? Why? How is he chosen? How may he be removed from office? Must he be a member of the House of Commons? Why not? If he is a Senator, who leads the government in the House of Commons? What are the disadvantages of having a Premier who is a Senator?

4. Without looking at your text, mention as many departments of the public service as you can. How many ministers are there in the present Cabinet? Are there any ministers without portfolio?

5. Explain the King's Privy Council for Canada, order-in-council, and Governor-General-in-council.

SECTION VI. THE GENERAL ELECTION

Dissolution of Parliament. -We have already noted that, under the British North America Act, a general election of members of the House of Commons must take place at least once every five years. At the end of the five-year period, Parliament is *dissolved* by the Governor-General, the members cease to be the representatives of the constituencies that had sent them to the House, and a general election is held. It is very seldom, however, that Parliament lives out its full term.

The government of the day always likes to choose what it considers to be the most favorable moment for securing a verdict from the people on its actions while

in office. Whenever the Premier, therefore, may think it advisable from the standpoint of the government to hold an election, he advises the Governor-General to dissolve Parliament. Or, some question of grave importance to the welfare of the country may be before the House, and the Premier may think it necessary to consult the people in order to obtain their opinion. Whatever may be the reasons advanced for a dissolution of Parliament, the Governor-General would scarcely refuse the request of the Premier without very strong grounds for such action.

Again, the government may lose the confidence of the House of Commons, that is, it may find itself without enough supporters to carry through its measures. Then the Premier may ask the Governor-General for a dissolution, in order that his government may appeal to the people, or he may resign. If he should resign, the new Premier may continue without a new election, trusting to obtain sufficient support in the House, or he may ask for a dissolution, in the hope that a majority of members favorable to him and his policies may be returned.

The Election.—Whenever the government decides to hold a general election, *writs*, or orders, are sent out by the *Chief Electoral Officer* in the name of the King to an official appointed by the government in each parliamentary constituency, and known as the *Returning Officer*. The writ gives the date on which the *nomination* of candidates shall take place and the date of *polling*, that is, the day on which the electors shall make their choice at the polls among those nominated, provided, of course, that more than one candidate is nominated.

The Returning Officer divides the constituency into as many divisions as are necessary for the convenience of the voters. The date and place of nomination and the date and place of the election are published in the news-

papers and in notices posted up in as many conspicuous places as possible. At twelve o'clock noon on the day and at the place named for the receiving of nominations, the Returning Officer is present and remains until two o'clock in the afternoon to receive nominations. All nominations must be written and must be signed by at least ten persons whose names are on the voters' list. Each person nominated must also signify in writing his willingness to stand for election, unless he is absent and so prevented from giving his written consent. For every candidate the sum of two hundred dollars must be handed in with the nomination papers. Should a candidate fail to receive at least one-half of the vote polled in favor of the person elected, his deposit is forfeited to the Crown. If only one candidate is nominated, the Returning Officer declares that person elected by *acclamation*.

Following the nomination, public notice of those nominated is given by the Returning Officer. On the election day, the voters attend at the polling places, which have been properly advertised, for the purpose of casting their votes.

The proceedings at the polling places are in charge of the *Deputy Returning Officer*, who is assisted by a *Poll Clerk*. *Scrutineers*, that is, representatives of the candidates nominated, may also be present to see that none but qualified voters cast their ballots and that the proceedings are all according to law. When a voter enters the booth, or polling place, he gives his name, and, if this name is on the voters' list, he is handed a ballot. Should the Deputy Returning Officer or any one of the scrutineers doubt that the person claiming the ballot is the person whose name appears on the voters' list, he may ask the voter to swear that he is the proper person. If he refuses to take this oath, he cannot obtain a ballot.

In *Appendix C* you will find the form of the ballot used in the Dominion elections. The names of the candidates appear in alphabetical order and are separated from one another by a broad, black band. There is a reason for this band. In marking the ballot, the voter signifies his choice by making a cross (X) opposite the name of the candidate whom he favors. If any other mark appears on the ballot, it is spoiled and is not counted. There is very little chance of the voter making a mistake in marking his ballot, as the names are some distance apart, and the only place left in which to mark the cross is the small white space opposite each name.

The ballot handed to the voter has the initials of the Deputy Returning Officer on the back, and there is also a number on the *counterfoil*, which corresponds to the name of the voter in the *poll book* in which the clerk records the names of those who vote. The voter then retires to a small compartment, marks his ballot, folds it, and returns it to the Deputy Returning Officer, who examines his initials to see that it is the ballot given to the voter. The Deputy Returning Officer then tears off the counterfoil and drops the ballot into the box. The ballot is absolutely secret.

Polling begins at 9 o'clock in the morning and closes at 5 o'clock in the afternoon. The boxes are then unlocked, and the votes are counted by the Deputy Returning Officer in the presence of the scrutineers. The result is forwarded with as little delay as possible to the Returning Officer, who counts up the total votes cast and declares the candidate receiving the highest number of votes elected. If there is a tie, the Returning Officer, who otherwise has no vote, casts a vote for one or other of the candidates and declares the one for whom he votes elected.

If any candidate is not satisfied with the result of the vote, he may demand a *recount* of the votes before a judge.

It sometimes happens that some ballots have been rejected by a Deputy Returning Officer that a judge may consider to be properly marked, that is, marked in such a way that there is no doubt as to the intention of the voter. When an election is very close, a recount is usually demanded and at once granted.

Voters.—All British subjects of the full age of twenty-one years, without distinction of sex, who have resided in Canada for twelve months and in the electoral division where they desire to vote for two months immediately preceding the date of the writ of election, are entitled to vote in an election for members of the House of Commons. Indians, judges, returning officers, election clerks, criminal prisoners, lunatics, and those disqualified for corrupt practices are not allowed to vote. The voters' lists prepared by the respective provinces for their own purposes are used in Dominion elections, but ample provision is made for the addition of names which have been omitted from the provincial lists. The preparation of the lists is in charge of *Registrars*, who are appointed by the Returning Officer for the purpose. The *Dominion Elections Act* lays down very fully the methods of completing the lists to be followed by the Registrars in both *urban* and *rural* constituencies. Finally, any person whose name has for any reason been left off the list prepared by the Registrar may appeal to the *Revising Officer*, usually a judge, who will take such action as he may see fit. A similar procedure applies to the striking off of names that have been improperly placed on the list of voters.

By-Elections.—Sometimes during the term of Parliament a member dies, or resigns, or is unseated by the courts for irregularities in connection with his election. Then, when the Speaker of the House of Commons is notified of the vacancy, he issues his warrant for a new

election. Such an election is called a *by-election*. The procedure is exactly similar to that at a general election.

Questions and Suggestions

1. What is meant by the dissolution of Parliament? Give some of the reasons why Parliament may be dissolved before its term has expired.

2. When a general election is held, all the political parties put their candidates in the field as soon as possible. In the election campaign of the parties, the following terms are frequently used: *platform, policy, opposition, bribery and corruption, unfair practices, canvass, third party, bolter, gerrymander, traitor to his party, appeal to the country, doubtful constituency, deferred elections.* Can you find out what each of these terms means?

3. How many political parties are there in Dominion politics at present? What is the present standing of each in the House of Commons? What are the advantages of the party system? the disadvantages? What would happen, if there were no parties in Dominion politics? How many Premiers have we had in Canada since Confederation? To what party did each belong? Why did each quit office?

4. Who were the candidates at the last Dominion election in your electoral division? Who was elected? To what party does he belong? What was his majority?

5. Why is it necessary that a candidate should deposit two hundred dollars with his nomination papers? Why must his nomination papers be signed by a certain number of electors? Can you improve on the ballot at present in use at Dominion elections? Have you ever been present at a recount of votes? Tell what occurred. Have you ever had a by-election in your electoral division?

SECTION VII. PROCEDURE IN PARLIAMENT

The Opening of Parliament.—When the elections have been held, and the returns giving the names of those who have been elected are sent in, the Governor-General, again on the advice of his Cabinet, issues a proclamation calling the members of Parliament to come together on a certain day for the *despatch of business*, that is, to attend to their parliamentary duties.

The proceedings attending the opening of a new Parliament are of great interest, associated as so many of the forms are with the ancient customs of the Imperial House. On the day mentioned in the proclamation, the members of the two Houses assemble in their respective chambers. The House of Commons is called to order by the Clerk of the House, who proceeds to read to the members a letter from the Governor-General informing them that the Chief-Justice of Canada, in his capacity as Deputy Governor-General, will be present in the Senate Chamber at the hour of 3 o'clock in the afternoon for the purpose of opening the session. Soon after the reading of the letter from the Governor-General, the Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod enters the Commons and delivers a message as follows: "Gentlemen of the House of Commons: His Honor the Deputy of His Excellency the Governor-General desires the immediate attendance of this Honorable House in the Chamber of the Honorable the Senate."



THE SENATE CORRIDOR
This is the corridor connecting the Senate Chamber with the House of Commons Chamber, Ottawa.

Accordingly, the members of the Commons proceed to the Senate Chamber, where they and the Senators are addressed as follows by the Deputy of the Governor-General: "I have it

in command to let you know that his Excellency the Governor-General does not see fit to declare the causes of his summoning the present Parliament of Canada until the Speaker of the House of Commons shall have been chosen according to law; but, to-morrow at the hour of 3 o'clock in the afternoon, his Excellency will declare the causes of calling this Parliament."

The members of the House of Commons then return to their own Chamber, where they elect a Speaker, who is at once conducted to his seat, usually by the mover and seconder of his nomination. The Speaker on taking his seat, speaking in English and in French, thanks the members for his election and promises to maintain and preserve the traditions, customs, and privileges of the House of Commons. The House then adjourns until the next day.

When the House again assembles, the Speaker reads a letter from the secretary of the Governor-General announcing that His Excellency will proceed to the Senate Chamber at 3 o'clock in the afternoon for the purpose of formally opening the session of Parliament. Once more the Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod appears and informs the members that His Excellency desires their attendance in the Senate Chamber. Headed by the Speaker in his robes of office, the Commons proceed to the Senate Chamber. When they arrive there, the Speaker addresses the Governor-General as follows: "May it please your Excellency: The House of Commons have elected me as their Speaker, though I am but little able to fulfil the important duties thus assigned to me. If in the performance of these duties I should at any time fall into error, I pray that the fault may be imputed to me and not to the Commons whose servant I am." The Speaker of the Senate then addresses the Speaker of the Commons as follows: "I am commanded by His Excellency the Governor-General to assure you that your words and actions will constantly receive from him the most favorable construction." The Governor-General

then opens Parliament by reading both in English and in French the *speech from the throne.*

The speech from the throne is prepared by the Premier and sets forth some of the most important matters of legislation which the government intends to bring before Parliament during the coming session. After the reading of the speech, the members of the Commons return to their own chamber, where the Speaker addresses them as follows: "I have the honor to state that the House having attended on the Governor-General in the Senate Chamber, I informed His Excellency that the choice of Speaker had fallen upon me, and, in your names and on your behalf, I made the usual claim for your privileges, which His Excellency was pleased to confirm to you."

At this point, the leader of the government in the House, generally the Premier, rises to introduce a bill, usually a bill respecting the administration of oaths of office. This is in accordance with an old custom of the House of Commons in England and is intended to proclaim the fact that the House of Commons is independent of the King and may proceed with its business in any way and in any order that it pleases. The Speaker then informs the House that the Governor-General had been pleased to make a speech to both Houses of Parliament and that, to prevent mistakes, he had obtained a copy. He then reads the speech. On a motion the speech is taken into the consideration of the House.

The House usually adjourns until the following Monday, when a motion is introduced and duly seconded to the effect "that an address be presented to his Excellency the Governor-General offering the humble thanks of this House to His Excellency for the gracious speech he has been pleased to make to both Houses of Parliament." The debate on this motion then proceeds.

Ordinarily in parliamentary debate, members must keep to the discussion of the particular question before the

House, but, in the debate on the speech from the throne, any subject whatever may be brought up and debated. Though this takes up a great deal of time, yet, on the whole, it is worth while to have a particular time in Parliament when any grievance or wrong may be freely discussed, and thus brought to the attention of the people and their representatives. When the debate on the speech from the throne is ended, the House draws up in reply an address to the Governor-General, which is forwarded to him by the government.

Bills.—The debate on the speech from the throne may last for several days, or even for several weeks, but, in the intervals of the debate, bills may be introduced into the House, either by the government or by private members. Such bills are of various kinds. Those which deal with matters of public or general interest are called *public bills*. Those which relate to the affairs of corporations, companies, or private individuals are called *private bills*. Bills which are brought in by the Cabinet, and which it expects that the House will adopt, are called *government bills* or *measures*. Those which propose the expenditure of money are called *money bills*.

All bills, before they can become law, must pass a first, a second, and a third reading in both the House of Commons and the Senate. They are also discussed by each House in *Committee of the Whole House*, that is, at a session in which the Speaker leaves the chair and his place is taken by the Deputy-Speaker, or in his absence by a chairman elected by the members. In Committee of the Whole House, bills are taken up clause by clause, and the ordinary rules of debate are not enforced, so that a member, instead of being allowed to speak only once, may speak as often as he pleases. In this way bills are given a great deal of consideration. All bills, with the exception of money bills, may originate in

either the House of Commons or the Senate. After the bill has received its three readings in one House, it is sent to the other to be taken up in the same way. The amendments to the bill made by one House must be agreed to by the other, or else the bill has to be set aside and cannot be brought up again until the next session of Parliament. Usually, if there is a dispute between the two Houses, a committee appointed by one House meets a committee appointed by the other, and this joint committee endeavors to arrange a satisfactory compromise.



THE LIBRARY OF PARLIAMENT

Prorogation of Parliament.—When Parliament has finished its business, and the government has decided to bring the session to a close, the Governor-General once more proceeds in state to the Parliament Buildings, and gives his assent in the name of the King to all the bills which have been passed by Parliament. It is an understanding of our constitution that the royal assent will be given to all bills dealing with purely Canadian affairs. When the King's assent has been given to a bill, it becomes part of the law of the land, as an *Act* or *statute*. After assenting to the various

bills presented to him, the Governor-General *prorogues* Parliament, that is, he brings its session to an end. But, under the terms of the British North America Act, Parliament must be called together for another session before twelve months have elapsed.

Money Bills.—By requiring Parliament to hold a session at least once a year, our constitution prevents any man or body of men from carrying on the government of the country for any great length of time without advice from the representatives of the people. This is one way of protecting free government. But, even if the British North America Act did not make this provision, there is another circumstance which renders impossible any such disregard of the will of the people, and that is that no government can carry on its work very long without money, and, as we know, no money can be raised by taxation or spent without the permission of Parliament. Now Parliament commonly provides for the financial needs of government for only about one year at a time. Thus, the necessity of obtaining money would soon force any government to call Parliament together again.

This control over the money of the nation gives a great deal of power to Parliament and particularly to the House of Commons, because it is in that House, following the ancient custom in England, that all bills involving the expenditure of money must first be introduced. The Senate, though it has the power to refuse to pass a money bill, cannot add to or amend it. This custom, or rather right, together with the fact that the Commons are the chosen representatives of the people, while the Senate is merely an appointed body, makes the House of Commons much the more powerful body.

Because money bills are so important, there are many rules to ensure their careful passage through Parliament.

In the first place, no proposal to raise or spend money can be made in the House of Commons, until the Governor-General has sent a message to the House advising it. He, of course, would not send such a message unless advised to do so by the government. Thus, the right to bring in money bills is not given to the private members of the House of Commons, but is really given entirely to the government. Moreover, when such a proposal is made, it cannot at once be given its first reading like an ordinary bill. Before the House can vote on it, it must be taken up in Committee of the Whole in the form of resolutions. If these are approved by the House, then a bill is drawn up in accordance with them. When it is introduced, it is treated as an ordinary bill.



THE MINT, OTTAWA
It is in this building that the coinage of the Dominion is made.

The Annual Supply Bill.—By far the most important bill of any session of Parliament is the annual *supply* or *appropriation bill*, which provides for the raising and spending of practically all the money necessary to carry on the affairs of the country for the following year. When the government is ready, it submits to the House of Commons a message from the Governor-General recommending the spending of certain sums of money by the government for the following financial year. The government financial year begins on April 1st and ends on March 31st. The sums of money thus recommended are called the *estimates*.

The Minister of Finance then makes what is called the *budget speech*, in which he sets forth the financial condition

of the country, gives his reasons for spending the amount of money proposed by the government, and suggests the ways in which the government thinks it best to raise the money. Then, in a committee of all the members of the House, called *the Committee of Supply*, the Commons discuss the estimates very carefully, and decide how much money, or *supply*, as it is called, they shall vote. This having been fixed, the House forms another committee of all its members, called the *Committee of Ways and Means*, which decides by what means the supply already agreed to is to be raised. After this has been done, the annual supply bill is drawn up on the basis of these decisions, is brought before the House, and passed like an ordinary bill. It is then sent to the Senate, and, when passed by that body, goes forward to the Governor-General for his assent.

Committees of the House.—In addition to the various committees already mentioned, there are also a number of *Select Standing Committees* of the House, to which various matters are referred for consideration and for report. The more important of these committees are: on privileges and elections; on private bills; on railways, canals, and telegraph lines; on public accounts; on banking and commerce; on agriculture and colonization; on marine and fisheries; on mines and minerals; on forests, waterways, and waterworks; on printing and stationery; and on the library of Parliament. The duties of the committees are sufficiently indicated by the title of each. Special committees may also be appointed as the occasion may arise. Bills reported by standing or special committees are sent to the Committee of the Whole House for consideration.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Distinguish between the *prorogation* and the *dissolution* of Parliament.

2. What is meant by the speech from the throne, budget speech, public bills, private bills, government measures, Committee of the Whole, money bills, annual supply bill, committee of ways and means?

3. How is a debate conducted in the House of Commons? What is the advantage of having committees of the House of Commons? Find out what is meant by "Hansard." What is meant by the "Press Gallery" in the House of Commons? How long did the last session of the Dominion Parliament last? Can you find out what were the most important laws passed?

4. What is the difference between a "bill" and an "Act"?

5. What is the reason for holding an election to the House of Commons at least once in five years? Why not every two years? four years? seven years?

6. What are the powers of the Senate in relation to a money bill? Why is its power so limited?

SECTION VIII. DOMINION REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

Sources of Revenue.—What, it may be asked, are the chief ways by which the Dominion government raises money, and how is this money spent? The Dominion Parliament is given the power by the British North America Act to raise money by any system of taxation it may wish to use. So far, however, it has raised its revenue mainly by *indirect taxation*, although it has also levied and collected *direct taxes*. Let us take an example of each, so that we may understand clearly the difference between these two methods of taxation.



SIR WILFRID LAURIER
Premier of Canada, 1896-1911.

One of the best known forms of indirect taxation is customs duties, that is, duties collected on goods brought into Canada from other countries. The wholesale house which orders from abroad pays the duty

on the goods to the officials of the Dominion government. It does not lose this amount. It charges it to the retailer as part of the price of the goods. In the same way the retailer collects from the consumer who finally purchases the goods. Thus the person who ultimately buys and uses the goods pays the duty, though he may not realize it. Such a tax is very well named an *indirect* tax. On the other hand, when the Dominion government compels a man to pay a percentage of his yearly earnings, or income, such a tax is clearly a *direct* tax, because it is not passed on from person to person. The man who pays an income tax to the government is the man upon whom the burden clearly falls.



SIR ROBERT BORDEN
Premier of Canada, 1911-1917

The Dominion government obtains a great deal of its revenue from indirect taxes, such as customs duties and excise duties. These latter are taxes levied on certain goods made in Canada, such as beer, whiskey, tobacco, cigars, and cigarettes. The government also levies a tax on incomes and imposes a sales tax on certain products sold; both of these taxes produce a large revenue. It obtains revenue, too, by selling or renting public lands and by leasing oil and mineral rights in the Prairie Provinces and in the North-West Territories, where the Dominion still controls the public lands. Other sources of revenue are the stamp tax on cheques, the earnings of the post office, canal tolls, and harbor dues.

Expenditure.—There are a great many ways in which the Dominion must spend money. Owing to the enormous

cost of the Great War and to the large expenditure on public works, particularly railways and canals, Canada has a very large public debt. The interest on this debt must be paid yearly to those from whom the money was borrowed, and this alone takes millions of dollars. Then, there is the cost of paying the salaries of the Governor-General, the Lieutenant-Governors of the provinces, the senators, the members of the House of Commons, the cabinet ministers, the judges, and the many thousands of civil servants, or employees of the government, in the Parliament Buildings at Ottawa and throughout the country. Then again, public property of many kinds, such as post offices, canals, piers, lighthouses, railways, experimental farms, penitentiaries, etc., must be kept up, and often added to, as the population of the country increases and the business of the nation grows.

The Dominion also pays large sums of money yearly to the provinces in the way of subsidies and grants. It likewise pays money to the Indians, and it has to keep up the Mounted Police, and the military and naval establishments. It also costs a great deal of money to bring to Canada good settlers from other countries.

All the money collected by the government in the different ways mentioned is paid into the Dominion treasury at Ottawa, and forms what is known as the *consolidated fund*. Out of this fund are made all payments for all purposes. No payment, as we have seen, can be made from this fund without the express sanction of Parliament. An official, known as the *Auditor-General*, has the duty of seeing that all payments made from the fund have proper sanction and are in all respects legal. The Auditor-General is independent of the government. He is appointed by Parliament itself and may be dismissed only by Parliament.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Show as fully as you can how the Dominion government obtains its revenue. Suppose the revenue does not equal the expenditure, what is the result?

2. Distinguish clearly between direct taxation and indirect taxation. Would it be better to have all our taxation direct? Why? How are customs and excise duties collected? How is the sales tax collected? How is the income tax collected? Find out all you can about the relation of the government to our Indians. What is meant by "treaty money?" Find out all you can about the cost of maintaining the Canadian militia.

3. What is meant by the consolidated revenue fund? What are the duties of the Auditor-General? Why is his office of such importance?

4. What are the chief items of expenditure in connection with the government of the Dominion? Could any of these expenditures be cut off?

5. How does the government decide what public works shall be undertaken each year? Is it a good plan for the government to borrow money to construct public works?

6. Why do the Prairie Provinces not control their own natural resources? Would it be to the advantage of these provinces if they had control?

SECTION IX.—INTER-IMPERIAL RELATIONSHIPS

Restrictions on Canadian Autonomy at the Time of Confederation.—A country which has complete control over its own affairs is said to enjoy *autonomy*. In the earlier sections of this chapter we have seen how the British colonies in North America obtained responsible government and how they federated in 1867 to form the Dominion of Canada. It is important to remember that the British North America Act did not leave Canada in complete control of her own affairs, and that definite powers of regulating the government of Canada were retained by the government of Great Britain. The other British Dominions were subject to similar regulation, and matters which concerned the whole Empire were

decided on the advice of the ministers who were responsible to the British Parliament.

For some years after the passing of the British North America Act the Governor-General of Canada received instructions when he was appointed directing him how to act in certain circumstances, and until 1926 the Governor-General remained an officer of the British government through whom communication might be made to the Canadian government.

The British North America Act expressly gave the Governor-General power to *reserve* bills passed by the Senate and House of Commons in Canada. When a bill was reserved it did not become law unless the King* approved of it within two years, and the King acted on the advice of ministers who were responsible to the British Parliament. Even if the Governor-General assented to a bill in the King's name and it thus became an Act of the Canadian Parliament, the King, on the advice of British ministers, might *disallow* the Act within two years.

There was nothing in the British North America Act to ensure that treaties affecting Canada would be made on the advice of Canadian ministers. In practice it was the advice of British ministers which brought about treaties whether they affected the whole Empire or merely related to some part of it. One reason was that it was thought that the British Empire, just like any other state, must act as a unit in dealing with foreign countries. In the same way a declaration of war would be made in the King's name on the advice of British ministers and would apply to the whole of the King's Dominions.

There was nothing in the Act to deprive any of the King's subjects in Canada of their right of appealing from

*Until 1901 the Queen.

decisions of Canadian courts of law to the King-in-Council in England. Appeals of this sort were heard by a number of Privy Councillors, who were chosen because they were eminent judges and who formed the *Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.* *See page 251.*

It was still possible for the British Parliament to make laws which would apply throughout the whole of the Empire or in any part of it, though a British law would not have this wide application unless it assumed it in so many words. As long as the Empire acted as a unit in its relations with foreign countries it was obviously convenient that the law on some topics closely connected with foreign affairs should be the same for the whole Empire.



THE ARMS OF CANADA*

Finally, as the British North America Act did not give to the Canadian Parliament any power to alter or *amend* the Act itself, changes could be made only by the British Parliament.

The Development of Canadian Autonomy.—During the last sixty years Canada has steadily developed, and there is now no reason why she should not enjoy complete autonomy, and manage her own affairs as completely as

*The arms of Canada, authorized by Royal proclamation, November 21, 1921, are those of England, Scotland, Ireland, and France—all four mother countries—with a sprig of maple on the lower third of the shield indicative of Canada. The crest is a lion holding a red maple leaf, a symbol of sacrifice. The supporters are the lion and the unicorn of the Royal Arms, the former upholding the Union Jack and the latter the ancient banner of France. "A mari usque ad mare," the motto, is from *Psalm* 72: 8: "He shall have dominion also from sea to sea, and from the river unto the ends of the earth," and in common parlance means "from sea to sea" or "ocean to ocean."

Great Britain manages hers. In response to this development very great changes have taken place since Confederation in the relations between Canada and Great Britain; but, for the most part, these changes have been made in practice without any corresponding changes in the law and, indeed, without any express agreement.

The Governor-General no longer receives instructions as to the policy which he is to pursue, and it is clearly recognized that he should follow the advice of his responsible ministers in Canada, just as the King acts on the advice of his ministers in Great Britain. The power of reserving bills has not been exercised in recent years, nor has the King disallowed Canadian legislation.

Treaties have been concluded in the King's name on the advice of Canadian ministers alone, and it has been made clear that, while a declaration of war would involve the whole Empire, Canada is free to decide how far, if at all, she will take part in the prosecution of the war. However, the fact that Canada did not participate in a particular war would not mean that Canadians had any of the rights of neutrals, and the country with which the Empire was at war could treat Canadians as enemies just like any other British subjects.

Appeals to the Privy Council may still take place, though not as freely as before.

It has been usual for laws which are to be the same throughout the whole Empire to be agreed on in consultation between the governments concerned, and then for each parliament to enact the law separately. The British Parliament has not made laws applicable to Canada against the wishes of the Canadian people.

Changes have been made in the British North America Act, but always at the request of the Canadian Senate and House of Commons, and no such request has been

refused. It has never been settled whether the British Parliament would act on such a request if one of the Canadian provinces protested, or whether the tacit consent of the provincial governments is necessary.

The result of these changes in practice has been to make Canadian autonomy very nearly complete. But, as corresponding changes were not made in the laws, there came to be a wide difference between the way in which business was done in practice and the way in which it was formally carried on. There is always a certain vagueness about a tacit agreement, and there was some difference of opinion as to whether the departure from the letter of the law was in every case real and permanent. As we shall see in a later section, a definite agreement was made in 1926 which laid down in express words the principles which govern the relations of Canada and Great Britain.

The British Dominions and the Imperial Conferences. —We must remember that Canada is only one of the overseas Dominions of the British Empire. Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa are great Dominions in which responsible government and autonomy have developed just as they have in Canada. Newfoundland, though much smaller, is in a similar position. In 1921 the Irish Free State, which, with Northern Ireland, had been included since 1801 in the United Kingdom, received by treaty a position or *status* similar to that of Canada.

In addition to these communities which have both autonomy and responsible government, the British Empire includes a very large number of Crown Colonies and dependencies with forms of government suited to their special conditions. There is also the immense Indian Empire, which is progressing rapidly towards autonomy and responsible government.



GEORGE V BY THE GRACE OF GOD OF GREAT BRITAIN, IRELAND, AND THE BRITISH DOMINIONS BEYOND THE SEAS, KING, DEFENDER OF THE FAITH, EMPEROR OF INDIA

Representatives of the governments of Great Britain, of the Dominions, and of India frequently meet for consultation at Imperial Conferences. These developed from the earlier Colonial Conferences, and, in 1907, it was settled that they should be held every four years, with the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom as president. The conferences merely recommended action to the governments represented at them. Uniform legislation on some topic, such as naturalization of aliens, would be agreed on and then enacted separately by each of the countries represented. Co-operation for mutual defence would be discussed, but no government was compelled to act upon the recommendations of the conference.

During the Great War co-operation between the Dominions and Great Britain was very close, and consultation was of special importance. Statesmen from the Dominions were made members of the Imperial War Cabinet, which, unlike the Conferences, gave advice directly to the King and so controlled the policy of the Empire. A similar method was adopted in negotiating the Peace Treaty with Germany and the Covenant of the League of Nations.

The King's ministers in the United Kingdom signed the Peace Treaty on behalf of the whole Empire; but India and all the Dominions except Newfoundland also signed, and each became individually a member of the League of Nations. The Irish Free State, on receiving Dominion status, also became a member of the League.

After the war the Imperial Conferences were resumed on the old footing. But, as we have seen, the great development in the autonomy of the Dominions made it necessary to formulate a clear and up-to-date account of the relationship between them and Great Britain.

The Agreement of 1926.—The Imperial Conference of 1926 unanimously adopted a report declaring that Great Britain and the Dominions are "autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by common allegiance to the Crown and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations."

It was also declared that Great Britain and the Dominions are united by "positive ideals" and that "peace, security, and progress" are among the objects of the British Empire. While no Dominion controls another, all are anxious to act in co-operation, and all are confident that "no common cause will be imperilled" by any Dominion withholding its co-operation.

From these two principles the rest follows. In some cases careful study of the special problems concerned will be necessary before laws and formalities can be changed so as to conform to these principles by removing every trace of a control which is no longer to be exercised. With a few points the Conference dealt expressly.

Communications between the governments of the Dominions and of Great Britain are to be made directly and not, as in the past, through the Governor-General. The Governor-General's power of reserving bills, and the King's power of disallowing Acts, will be exercised only on the advice of the responsible ministers in the Dominion concerned.

Each Dominion may make treaties which concern itself alone. If another Dominion is concerned, it must be notified before negotiations are begun so that it may, if it wishes, participate in the negotiations. In no case are active obligations to be imposed on a Dominion without its express consent. Great Britain signs treaties

on behalf of all parts of the Empire which are not individually members of the League of Nations (and therefore for Newfoundland). Otherwise Great Britain's position in regard to treaties is similar to that of the Dominions.

It is recognized that a Dominion may have its own special representatives in foreign countries or make use of the existing British representatives. After receiving authorization, Canada, in 1927, sent a minister to Washington, and a United States minister was established at Ottawa. The following year, similar direct representation was arranged with France and Japan.

While Great Britain and the Dominions are equal in status, they are not necessarily equal in importance. Newfoundland is not as important a member of the Empire as Australia; nor is New Zealand as important as Great Britain. It is expressly recognized that in the sphere of foreign affairs generally, "as in the sphere of defence, the major share of the responsibility rests now and must for some time continue to rest with his Majesty's government in Great Britain." There is no suggestion in the report that any other government in the Empire could declare war, nor that a declaration of war would not involve the whole Empire.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Should the Parliament of Canada be able to bring about changes in the Canadian constitution if one of the provinces objected?
2. Should the right of appeal to the Privy Council be abolished? What is the Australian law about such appeals?
3. Find out what you can about the Colonial and Imperial Conferences. Why was the New Zealand proposal for Imperial Federation rejected in 1911?
4. Should Canada be able to declare war independently of the rest of the Empire? Should Canada be able to remain neutral if the rest of the Empire were at war?
5. What obligations are involved in Canada's membership in the League of Nations? What advantages are secured?

CHAPTER XVI

THE GOVERNMENT OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

The Province of British Columbia.—When the provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick united to form the Dominion of Canada in 1867, provision was made for the admission into the union of the colony of British Columbia, if suitable terms could be arranged between the governments of that colony and of the Dominion of Canada. Four years later an agreement was reached and was confirmed by an order-in-council of the Imperial government. It is this agreement, known as the *Terms of Union*, which settles the relation of British Columbia to the Dominion of which it has become a province. By one of these terms the British North America Act of 1867 is to apply to British Columbia, except in those cases for which special provision has been made. The existing form of government was to be continued in British Columbia until that province should arrange for its change and for the introduction of responsible government.

Perhaps the most important item in the bargain between the colony and the Dominion was that which provided that the latter should secure the completion within ten years of a railway connecting the seaboard of British Columbia with the railway system of Canada. In return for this promise the government of British Columbia undertook to make a grant to the Dominion of a belt of land on each side of the railway. When the Terms of Union came into operation, the colony of British Columbia became the province of British Columbia and an integral part of the Dominion of Canada.

Government in British Columbia. In the last chapter we discussed the powers assigned to the Legislatures of the provinces of Canada. Each province has its own form of government, which it may change as it pleases, provided that it makes no alteration in the position of the Lieutenant-Governor and that it does nothing inconsistent with the provisions of the British North America Act. While the systems of government adopted by the different provinces are not exactly like one another, there is a general resemblance among them all.

In all the provinces, as in the Dominion of Canada, the government is divided into two branches: the *legislative branch* which makes the laws, and the *executive branch* which administers them. You will remember that it was one of the main characteristics of responsible government that the advisers of the King's representative, who are at the head of the executive branch of the government, must be *responsible* to Parliament, or the legislative branch of the government, for their actions, and that they must resign their offices if they cease to receive the support of a majority in the legislative chamber elected by the people. Responsible government has been established in every province of Canada, and we therefore find that in each province the executive branch of the government consists of the King's representative and advisers, called *ministers*, who are also members of the Legislature of the province and who retain their offices only so long as they enjoy its confidence. In British Columbia these ministers constitute a body known as the *Executive Council*. The Legislature consists of the King's representative, known as the *Lieutenant-Governor*, and a *Legislative Assembly* chosen by the people.

The Lieutenant-Governor.—The laws of our province are made and enforced in the King's name, but the King cannot take part personally in the government of the

province any more than in the government of the Dominion. In the one case as in the other his powers must be exercised by a representative. The representative of the King in the province is the Lieutenant-Governor. He is appointed for a term of five years by the Dominion government, that is to say by the Governor-General of Canada acting on the advice of his responsible ministers. The Lieutenant-



THE RESIDENCE OF THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR, VICTORIA
Most of the provinces maintain residences for their Lieutenant-Governor.

Governor's salary is paid by the Dominion government, and that government may remove a Lieutenant-Governor from office. It is only in cases in which a Lieutenant-Governor has acted in an improper, or *unconstitutional*, manner that this power of removal has been exercised. In all purely provincial matters the Lieutenant-Governor must be guided by the advice of his responsible ministers or Execu-

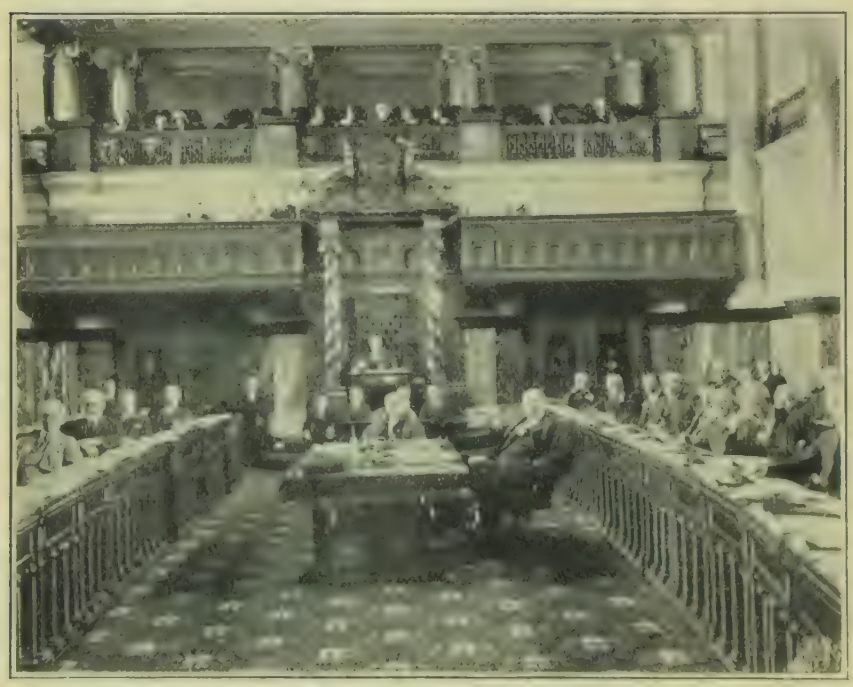
tive Council, and he incurs no personal responsibility when he acts on their advice.

The Legislative Assembly.—The Legislative Assembly of British Columbia, which consists of forty-eight members, corresponds very closely to the House of Commons in Canada and has much the same duties. There is, however, in the province of British Columbia no second legislative chamber to correspond to the Dominion Senate. Indeed, only one of the provinces—Quebec—has such a chamber. The members of the Legislative Assembly are elected by the people of the province in a manner which will be described later. To be eligible a person must be: (*a*) a British subject; (*b*) of the full age of twenty-one years; (*c*) a resident of the province for a year previous to his election; (*d*) a registered voter in some electoral district in the province. Women are eligible on the same terms as men. A member of the Legislature need not necessarily be a property-holder.

A person is disqualified from being a member of the Legislative Assembly if he holds an office, other than a post in the Executive Council, which carries a salary paid by the provincial government; or if he holds a contract with the provincial government. The object of these two rules is to exclude from the Legislative Assembly persons who would be tempted to give their votes from interested motives and without giving their undivided attention to the public advantage. Members of the Legislative Assembly receive a sessional indemnity of $2,000 as compensation for the time which they have had to take from their own business to devote to that of the public.

Procedure.—The officers of the Legislative Assembly are the same as those of the House of Commons. They include the *Speaker*, the *Deputy Speaker*, the *Clerk of the House*, the *Law Clerk*, and the *Sergeant-at-Arms*. The

duties of each officer are similar to those of the corresponding officer in the Canadian House of Commons. The procedure of the Legislative Assembly is also much the same as that of the House of Commons. At the opening of the session, the Lieutenant-Governor, as the representative of the King, comes in state to the Legislative Buildings and formally



THE INTERIOR OF THE LEGISLATIVE CHAMBER, VICTORIA
The frontispiece shows the exterior of the Legislative Buildings.

opens the session by reading the "speech from the throne", which has been prepared for him by his responsible ministers, and in which those ministers announce their policy. The voting of a formal address in reply gives members an opportunity of discussing the general conduct of the government.

As in the House of Commons, all bills receive three readings and are referred to committees for detailed consideration before being sent to the King's representative for signature. The procedure in regard to money-bills is the same as that followed in the House of Commons. Only a responsible minister can propose a measure which involves the expenditure of public money. The duty of the responsible ministers is to form an estimate of the amounts of money required for their various departments and to lay these before the Assembly. When the expenditure for the year has been authorized, the Minister of Finance introduces his budget, showing from what sources he proposes to raise the necessary money. Each tax imposed on the people must be authorized by an Act of the Legislature. At the close of the session the Lieutenant-Governor prorogues the Assembly with formalities similar to those used by the Governor-General in terminating a session of the House of Commons.

The Executive Council.—The responsible advisers of the Lieutenant-Governor form the Executive Council. It comprises such persons as the Lieutenant-Governor may from time to time appoint. Its members may never be more than twelve in number, and the following officials must be included: *Provincial Secretary, Attorney-General, Minister of Lands, Minister of Finance, Minister of Agriculture, Minister of Mines, Minister of Public Works, Minister of Railways, Minister of Labor, Minister of Industries, Minister of Education,* and *President of the Council.* As two or even more offices may be held by the same person, there may sometimes be members of the Executive Council who hold no special office and who are therefore called *ministers without a portfolio.* As a measure of economy, it has been provided that not more than eight of the officials mentioned may receive salaries. The salary of a minister

is $7,500 a year. The *Premier* receives $9,000 a year, but may not receive any further payment as head of any of the departments. These salaries are additional to the sessional indemnities.

The Premier of British Columbia is selected by the Lieutenant-Governor in the same way in which the Prime Minister of Canada is selected by the Governor-General. In choosing his colleagues in the Executive Council the Premier follows the same procedure as the Dominion Prime Minister. The Executive Council has in a smaller field duties very similar to those of the Dominion Cabinet, but there is in the government of the province no body which corresponds to the Privy Council for Canada. In many administrative matters the Lieutenant-Governor, with the advice of his Executive Council, may make orders, called *orders-in-council*, which within their proper sphere have the force of laws. When an Act is passed by the Legislature dealing with subjects on which detailed provisions are necessary, it is usual to confer power on the *Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council* to make orders on various points as they arise.

The Departments of the Public Service.—As in the case of the government of the Dominion the actual work of administration is carried on by permanent *civil servants* who do not resign, as the ministers do, at the will of the Legislative Assembly. For the convenient despatch of business these civil servants are organized in great *departments*, each of which deals with definite branches of the work of government. It is a characteristic feature of British institutions that at the head of each of these departments there is a responsible minister. The departments correspond to the officials mentioned as members of the Executive Council, but the *President of the Council* is not in charge of an administrative department. The responsible

minister at the head of the department is assisted by a civil servant, usually called the *Deputy Minister,* who carries on the routine work of the department and whose administrative experience is invaluable to the responsible chief.

The Department of the Provincial Secretary.—In a general way you may think of the *Provincial Secretary* as performing many of the public acts which have to be done in the name of the province and as keeping the records of the province. He issues all the documents which have to be authenticated, or shown to be genuine, by affixing to them the great seal of the province. The appointment of notaries and commissioners for oaths is part of his work. The Provincial Secretary is in charge of what are called the *archives* of the province. These consist of the public records and of documents of historic importance. It is through the Provincial Secretary's department that funds are provided for the *Provincial Library* and the *Provincial Museum.* The Provincial Secretary is also *Provincial Registrar,* and, in this latter capacity, keeps a record of all the documents issued under the great seal.



THE ARMS OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

Some administrative work has been placed in the charge of this department for the sake of convenience. There is no Department of Public Health in British Columbia, and much of the work which would ordinarily be done by such a department is left to the Department of the Provincial Secretary. He looks after the preparation of vital statistics, or figures showing the number of births, marriages, and deaths in the province. It is from records of this sort that we can judge whether the province is a healthy place to live in, and whether one part is healthier than another.

The superannuation of government employees and the work of the *Civil Service Commission* also fall under the supervision of the Department of the Provincial Secretary.

The Department of the Attorney-General.—The *Attorney-General* is the chief law officer of the government. He is the legal adviser of the Lieutenant-Governor and of the various government departments. It is his duty to see that the government of the province is carried on in accordance with the law. He superintends all matters connected with the administration of justice which do not fall within the jurisdiction of the Dominion of Canada. Many of the laws, whose administration involves the use of the *Provincial Police* and the frequent resort to the *Courts of Law*, are administered by the Attorney-General's department. Examples are the *Government Liquor Act*, the *Motor Vehicle Act*, and the *Fire-Marshal Act*.

In the course of these varied duties the Department of the Attorney-General collects a large part of the revenue of the province. The cost of administering justice is met, in part, from the sale of law stamps, which must be affixed to important documents before these can be used. Breaches of the laws of the province are often punished by requiring the offender to pay a sum of money called a *fine*. When transactions in land are recorded in the *Land Registry Offices* fees are charged, and charges are also made for work done by the sheriffs. Then, many of the Acts whose administration is entrusted to this department are Acts which aim at raising a revenue. The *Game Act*, for instance, requires persons who hunt game to buy a licence first. We shall see later in this chapter that, under the laws relating to motor vehicles, annual licences must be bought by those who use such vehicles, and that very large profits are made from the liquor business conducted by the government. Trading companies are also required to pay fees when they are registered in the province.

The Department of Lands.—The *Minister of Lands* is at the head of the department which deals with the greater part of the natural resources of the province. The province of British Columbia controls its own public lands, with the exception of those which have been transferred to the Dominion government for railway purposes. The forests and the mineral wealth of the province are also controlled by the provincial government. All these resources must be examined and counted. For this purpose surveys must be made and maps prepared. A special branch of the Department of Lands is devoted to the care of the forests, which require vigilant protection against fire and attention to the replacement, either by natural growth or by planting, of the timber which has been cut. Logging operations have to be inspected to see that no one cuts trees where he is not entitled to do so. The disposal of water rights and their regulation form another important part of the work of this department. Finally, the public lands may be dealt with by lease or sale to individuals. We may think of the duties of the Department of Lands as involving the management of a great estate.

The Treasury Department.—This department, which is under the control of the *Minister of Finance*, has the management and control of the revenue and expenditure of the province. We have seen that some taxes which are closely associated with the task of supervising particular occupations or policing the province are collected by the Department of the Attorney-General. But the more important taxes are dealt with by the Treasury Department. All public moneys are paid to the account of the Minister of Finance. We have seen that it is his duty to prepare estimates of expenditure and to lay the *Public Accounts* before the Legislature. This department manages the public debt of the province and sees that money is provided for interest payments and for the repayment of loans as they fall due.

The Minister of Finance is aided by a *Treasury Board*, of which he is chairman and which includes three members of the Executive Council appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council. This board acts as a committee of the Executive Council and issues directions as to the accounts to be kept by the other departments of the government.

A special branch of the Treasury Department looks after the control and audit of the Public Accounts. It includes a number of very important civil servants: the *Comptroller-General*, the *Auditor of Revenue*, the *Auditor of Disbursements*, and the *Purchasing Agent*. The Comptroller-General is removable only on an address from the Legislative Assembly and not, as are other civil servants, at the pleasure of the Crown. It is his duty to see that no cheque is issued for the payment of any public moneys, unless there is direct legislative authority for the payment, and ordinarily no cheque may be issued without the Comptroller's certificate that legislative authority for the expenditure exists. However, the Treasury Board may authorize the Comptroller to prepare a cheque, if it acts on the written opinion of the Attorney-General that there really is legislative authority; and some urgent expenditures may be authorized by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council. If the expenditure is for work done or material supplied, there must be a certificate from the official in charge of that part of the public service that the work has been done or the material furnished and that the price is a fair one.

The Department of Agriculture.—This department has control of the administration of all the laws dealing with agriculture and horticulture. It supervises the pastoral districts of the province. All model and experimental farms or agricultural associations which receive government aid are under its care. We have seen that agriculture is one of the matters with which the Dominion as well as the separate provinces may deal. It is the duty of the provincial Depart-

ment of Agriculture to co-operate with the corresponding department of the Dominion in collecting and distributing information. It prepares publications dealing with matters of interest to farmers.

The department includes a large staff of specialized civil servants, who form the staff of the branches devoted to horticulture, the inspection of horticultural products, plant pathology, research, live stock, veterinary services, poultry,



AN ORCHARD NEAR GRAND FORKS, BRITISH COLUMBIA
Note the care with which the orchard is cultivated.

soil and crops, dairies, and bee-keeping. Agriculture is one of the most important sources of the wealth of the province, and an occupation in which very large numbers of its people are engaged. The government, therefore, maintains a staff of experts to do on behalf of the farmers work which they could not do for themselves, such as research or the collection of information.

The Department of Mines.—The province of British Columbia is justly proud of its great mineral wealth. It is faced with the task of discovering the nature and extent of its resources, of regulating the conditions under which private enterprises are to be allowed to take the minerals, and of making known the opportunities to those who are likely to be interested in taking advantage of them. As mining is a dangerous occupation, careful regulations have to be made to ensure that proper precautions will be taken, and there must be thorough inspection to see that these regulations are obeyed.

The Department of Mines, which is under the charge of the *Minister of Mines*, looks after all matters affecting mining and after all government offices which have to do with the mining industry. The most important of these is the *Bureau of Mines*. It is under the direction of the *Provincial Mineralogist*, who is a civil servant and not a member of the Executive Council. It publishes information gratuitously and makes a free examination of any rock or mineral which a prospector may send to it. The province is divided into six mining districts, each with a *Resident Mining Engineer*. Each resident engineer is expected to carry on a continuous survey of his district and to give what help he can to prospectors and miners. The examination of assayers is conducted by the Department of Mines.

The Department of Public Works. This department has charge of the construction and maintenance of all new government buildings, and of roads, bridges, and other public works. It also looks after the repair, the furnishing, and heating of all government buildings. These include the Parliament Buildings at Victoria and all court houses, gaols, reformatories, industrial schools, and asylums throughout the province. For the purpose of constructing public works the minister may acquire any property that may be necessary; and, if the

owner refuses to sell, the minister may offer what he considers a fair price and then take over the property on agreeing to pay whatever price may be fixed by arbitration, *i.e.* by referring the question of what price is fair to an impartial third party for decision.

The Department of Railways.—This department has the right to supervise all the railways that are subject to the legislative control of the province of British Columbia. Railways are under the control of the Dominion government if they extend beyond the limits of the province or, even if they lie wholly within the province, if they are declared by the Parliament of Canada to be for the general advantage of Canada. The control of the railways involves the same sort of inspection as is necessary in the case of mines to see that the regulations which provide for precautions against accidents are observed. The department has control also over the combined railway and highway bridge over the Fraser River at New Westminster.

The Department of Labor.—In Canada the greater part of the legislation which affects the condition of manual workers and the terms on which they may be employed is enacted by the provinces and not by the Dominion. Legislation of this sort is becoming more and more important, and the nations of the world have created a branch of the League of Nations through which they can discuss the desirability of carrying out reforms together. The government of Canada takes part in these negotiations, but it is left for the provinces to make the necessary changes in their laws. The province of British Columbia has been foremost in carrying out these obligations. The administration of this important part of our laws is entrusted to the Department of Labor.

One of the most important laws affecting labor is the *Minimum Wage Act*, which gives a board the power to prescribe the lowest rate of wages which may be paid to women

and children. Other duties of the Department of Labor involve the collection of information on the laws passed in other parts of the British Empire and in foreign countries and the consideration of new laws proposed for British Columbia. It also does its best to make it easy for men and women in search of employment to find employers. For this purpose employment agencies are maintained throughout the province. The department also collects information about the rates of wages which are being paid in the province and elsewhere. It does its best to improve the relations between employers and those whom they employ and to prevent disputes which may lead to strikes. It inspects factories to see that conditions are sanitary and that regulations are properly observed.

The Department of Industries.—This department provides for investigation into the possibility of establishing in the province new industries which will help to enrich its people. It gives advice on industrial problems and publishes information on technical subjects. It may make loans to certain approved industries. It aims at doing for industry in general what the Department of Agriculture does for the farmers. It has the assistance of an *Advisory Council* of seven members.

The Department of Education.—This department, which has control of the public schools of the province, is fully described in a later chapter.

Special Boards and Commissions.—While all the public services of the province are dealt with through one or other of the eleven departments which have been described, some very important matters have been entrusted to special boards or commissions, which carry on their duties more or less independently of the department to which they are attached.

The *Provincial Board of Health* consists of the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, so that this very important subject receives the attention of all the members of the Executive Council.

The *Public Health Officer,* who is the secretary of the board, corresponds to the deputy minister in the case of a department in that he is a permanent civil servant acting under responsible ministers.

The *Civil Service Commission* consists of one member appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council. His duties are to give an opinion of the qualifications of candidates for the public service and to issue certificates to those who are qualified. He is also to investigate questions which affect the civil service and to make a report upon them.



THE PROVINCIAL SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF AND THE BLIND, VANCOUVER

The *Board of Lumber Commissioners* consists of not more than four persons appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council. Its duties consist in administering the *Lumber Act.*

The *Liquor Control Board* is constituted in the same way as the Board of Lumber Commissioners. It administers the *Government Liquor Act,* by which the government has a monopoly of the sale of wines and spirits in the province. The profits are shared with the municipalities and the hospitals of the province.

The *Workmen's Compensation Board* administers two acts: the *Mothers' Pensions Act*, which provides for monthly allowance to widows and deserted wives with children dependent on them for support; and the *Workmen's Compensation Act*, which provides for money to be paid to workmen injured in an accident in the course of their work. The funds for this purpose are supplied partly by contributions from employers and partly by deductions which are made from the wages earned by the workmen. Before this measure was passed a workman who was injured could obtain compensation only if he could show that his employer had neglected some precaution which he should have taken.

Political Parties in British Columbia.—In the Legislative Assembly, as in the case of the Dominion House of Commons, there are usually two political parties. One consists of the group of members who support the men who form the Executive Council. The other consists of the members who oppose the men in power. This latter party is called the *Opposition*, and its leader receives official recognition and a salary. There are also a few members who belong to neither party, but who sometimes support and sometimes oppose the measures proposed by the government. Occasionally an attempt is made to form a third political party which seeks to replace the officially recognized opposition party. Usually such attempts fail, and the new party merges in one of the older ones. The fundamental division is between those who support the men in power and those who oppose them.

When an election takes place, the party supporting the government aims to retain a majority of the members of the Legislative Assembly, and the opposition aims at obtaining a majority hostile to the government. If the latter party succeeds, the government, *i. e.* the members of

the Executive Council, must resign, and the Lieutenant-Governor invites the leader of the opposition to become Premier and to choose his political friends as colleagues in the new Executive Council. The fact that the leader of the opposition looks forward to becoming Premier some day makes him careful how far he presses his criticisms of the government. What he advocates while in opposition, he will be expected by the people to accomplish when in power.



THE MEN'S INFIRMARY, THE PROVINCIAL HOSPITAL FOR TUBERCULAR PATIENTS, TRANQUILLE, BRITISH COLUMBIA

Elections.—We have seen that the members of the Legislature are chosen by the people of the province. We must now examine in detail how the people make their choice. The Legislative Assembly is elected for a term of five years, and when this term expires there must be a new election. But the Assembly, like the House of Commons, is often dissolved before its full term comes to an end.

For the purposes of election the province is divided into a number of *districts*, the people in each of which are entitled

to choose one or more members. When an election is to be held, the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council appoints a day for the nomination of candidates in each district. An official, called a *Returning Officer*, is appointed for each district. This official issues a proclamation announcing the time and place for nominations and the day on which votes will be taken, if the choice of the member is not unanimous.

At the time and place fixed for nominations, voters who decide that they would like a certain man or woman to represent their district in the Legislative Assembly make out what is called a *nomination paper*, proposing him or her as a candidate. If more candidates are proposed than the number of representatives to which the district is entitled, it is necessary that the people should be asked to choose between them. This is done by what is called a *poll*. Each electoral district is divided into a number of polling divisions, and the Returning Officer for the district appoints a *Deputy Returning Officer* for each division at which he cannot attend in person. If, however, there have not been more nominations than there are members to be elected, no poll is necessary, and the members are said to be *elected by acclamation*.

Voting.—When the day fixed for the poll arrives, the citizens must choose between the candidates who have been nominated. As in the case of the Dominion elections, which have already been described, very careful provision has been made to enable the choice to be made under the best possible conditions.

In the first place, a list of those entitled to vote has been prepared. Every British subject who is of the full age of twenty-one years has a right to have his name placed on this list, unless he is disqualified for one of the following reasons:

(*a*) Because he is by race Chinese, Japanese, Hindu, or Indian;

(*b*) Because he has for some reason fallen short in his military duties;

(*c*) Because he has been guilty of corrupt acts at previous elections;

(*d*) Because he has been convicted of a serious crime and has neither served his sentence nor received a pardon;

(*e*) Because he is supported by the charity of the province in the Provincial Home.

Most citizens of the province are, therefore, entitled to have their names placed on the list of voters. They are given an opportunity to have their names entered on the list by making an affidavit showing that they are qualified for registration. When the first list has been published, people whose names do not appear on it are given an opportunity to advance their claims before a *Court of Revision*. Before this court, objection may be taken to any names which have been put on the list by mistake. When the day fixed for the election comes, only those whose names appear on the register may vote. Citizens should, therefore, be careful to see that their names are on the list. They should be still more careful to see that their names are entered for one polling division only; for, if their names appear for more than one division, they are not allowed to vote and are liable to be fined if they attempt to do so.

In the second place, great care is taken to give all persons entitled to vote ample opportunity for voting. The voting place must be kept open from eight o'clock in the morning to seven o'clock in the evening. The polling day is a public holiday, and every workman who is a registered voter must be allowed by his employer to take four consecutive hours from his work between the opening and closing of the voting period.

In the third place, all voting is kept secret. The object of this arrangement is to protect the voter from being penalized in any way for voting for or against a particular candidate. Secrecy is secured by a system of ballot voting which is very similar to that used in Dominion elections and which has already been described.

In the fourth place, care is taken to make sure that the person who receives a ballot is really the person whose name appears on the register. Each voter must sign his name and enter his address and occupation in a book. These entries are compared by the *Presiding Officer* with the original affidavit made by the voter in order to have his name placed on the register. The candidates, or their agents, or the presiding officer may require a voter to take an oath that he is the person whose name appears on the list.

In the fifth place, penalties are imposed for any form of dishonesty or corruption. A voter may be required to swear that he has not received anything, directly or indirectly, to induce him to vote or refrain from voting.

Absentee Voting. It often happens that a citizen who is registered as a voter in one district in the province is in another district when an election is held; or that in a large district a voter cannot attend at the particular polling division for which he is registered. Provision has recently been made for these cases. The voter is allowed to receive a ballot in the district or division in which he presents himself. To prevent frauds, he is required to make an affidavit showing that he is duly registered elsewhere. When he records his vote, his ballot is not counted in the division in which he receives it, but is forwarded in a sealed envelope to the district for which he is registered. One effect of this system is that the result of a provincial election is not announced until the absentee votes have been received and counted.

The Revenue of the Province.—In describing the administrative departments we have noticed some of the purposes for which money is needed by the government of the province. In the first place, a large sum is needed every year for the interest on the public debt of the province. In the second place, the salaries of the members of the Executive Council, the indemnities of the members of the Legislative Assembly, and the salaries of the civil servants of the province must be paid. A third object of expenditure is the construction of public works and their upkeep. Fourthly, the educational system of the province, which will be described in a later chapter, is maintained in part out of funds supplied by the government of the province. The pensions paid to widows and deserted wives with children to support, and the sums contributed by the provincial government to the fund from which workmen's compensation is paid, form further charges which have to be met. Year by year the total expenditure which the provincial government has to make for various purposes amounts to about $18,000,000.

To provide an adequate revenue with which to pay for all these things is one of the chief duties of the Legislature. The general subject of taxation will be dealt with in a later chapter, but something must be said here about the sources from which the revenue of the province is derived. First, certain annual payments are received from the government of the Dominion. These are four in number:

1. When British Columbia entered the Canadian Confederation the public debt of the colony was taken over by the Dominion just as the debts of the other provinces had been taken over. But the debt of British Columbia was smaller in proportion to the population of the province than were the other debts. In order to treat all provinces alike the Dominion government pays to British Columbia

interest at the rate of five per cent per annum on the difference between the debt actually taken over by the Dominion and the larger amount which would have had to be taken over had the debt of British Columbia been as great in proportion to the population as were the debts of the older provinces.

2. We have seen that, in return for the land conveyed for the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway, the province of British Columbia receives $100,000 a year from the Dominion government.

3. As the British North America Act gave to the Dominion the exclusive right to levy customs duties and excise duties, which together formed the greater part of the revenues of the provinces before they united, the Dominion undertook to pay to each province a sum based on its population. This system was revised in 1907, and an amendment was made to the British North America Act by the Imperial Parliament to give effect to an agreement reached between the Dominion and the provinces. Under this new system each province receives two payments annually: (*a*) a *subsidy* varying from $100,000 to $240,000 according to the population of the province concerned; and (*b*) a grant of 80 cents per head of population until the population exceeds 2,500,000 and of 60 cents per head of population for any greater number. For a period of ten years a special grant of $100,000 a year was made to the province of British Columbia, but this payment has now come to an end.

4. Finally, some special grants are made by the Dominion for special purposes, such as services connected with public health, which can best be carried out through the administrative officers of the provincial government.

A second source of revenue for the province consists in money derived from disposing of some of its natural resources. Public lands may be sold or leased, the right to

use water-power may be granted, the right to cut timber may be sold, and taxes may be charged on the minerals obtained from under the soil. We have seen that the management of these properties of the province is an important branch of the administrative work of its government.

A third source of revenue is from the charges made for the actual performance of some of the administrative work. Usually the charge is fixed at a higher sum than the actual cost of the work done and is therefore a tax rather than a price. Under this heading, we can place the charges made when transactions in land are recorded or registered, or when companies are incorporated, or when companies which have been organized elsewhere are given permission to carry on their business in the province. Stamps must be bought and affixed to many legal documents before these can be used, and fees are charged for the work of the sheriffs.

A fourth source of revenue consists in the licence fees which are charged for permission to engage in certain undertakings. The operation of a motor vehicle, the carrying on of many businesses or trades, the ownership of a dog, the killing of game are examples. We have seen that both the third and fourth sources of revenue are looked after by the Department of the Attorney-General. So also is a fifth source, the administration of the Government Liquor Act. The government has a monopoly of selling wines and spirits. It fixes the prices sufficiently high to give a good profit and compels purchasers to buy a permit before they can purchase liquor at all. Of the profits from the liquor trade the government keeps half and turns over the other half to the hospitals and the municipalities.

The sixth source of revenue is found in the direct taxes imposed by the Legislature of the province and collected through the Treasury Department. These taxes include:

an income tax on all incomes over the amount considered necessary for the maintenance of the tax-payer and his dependants; a personal property tax on property other than land or buildings owned in the province; a tax on successions, or on the property left by persons when they die, which is made a larger percentage of big fortunes than of small; taxes on fuel-oil, coal and coke, and gasoline; taxes on the purchase of tickets for admission to amusements; and taxes on betting at races.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Who is the Lieutenant-Governor of British Columbia? Where does he live? When was he appointed? When will his term expire? What had his record as a citizen been prior to his appointment?

2. Who is the Premier of British Columbia? When did he take office? Of what party is he the leader? Who was the last Premier? Who is the Leader of the Opposition? How many members are there in the Executive Council? How many can you name? What offices do they hold?

3. How many members are there in the Legislative Assembly? What political parties are represented there? What political party is in power? How long has it been in power?

4. What is the name of your electoral district? Who represents it in the Legislative Assembly? When was he elected? What other candidates offered themselves for election at that time?

5. What are the duties of the Speaker of the Legislative Assembly? Who is the present Speaker? Have you visited the Legislative Buildings at Victoria?

6. When was the last provincial election held in British Columbia? What were the numbers of the different parties in the Legislative Assembly before the election? What changes in these numbers did the election make?

7. Did your father and mother have votes at the last election? Ask them to tell you how they were placed on the register of voters and what they were required to do at the polls when they tendered their votes.

8. Read the last budget speech of the provincial Minister of Finance. What taxes are most disliked? What expenditures are least useful?

CHAPTER XVII

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

Communities and local Self-Government.—We have seen that there are many subjects on which laws are made by the Parliament of Canada; and many others on which each province may make its own laws. The first subjects were those on which it was desirable that the laws should be the same for the whole country; the second subjects were those on which the people of different parts of the country had different needs. Each province makes its own laws on matters which are mainly of importance to the people of that province; and the laws which it makes may well be different from those made in another province where different conditions prevail. Even within each province there are local communities which have special conditions to deal with and which require laws different from those of their neighbors.

When a large population is assembled in a small area, as it is in a city, the rules for the regulation of sanitation, for the regulation of traffic on the streets, for preventing unsuitable buildings from being constructed, will not be the same as for a scattered population in an agricultural district. The people who live in a city will wish to co-operate in providing for their own special needs, among the most important of which are a proper police force and suitable equipment for dealing with fires. The people of a country district will also co-operate with one another, but the needs for which they have to provide are not the same as those of the people who live in towns. The people

in one district may be richer than those in another and may be more willing to spend money for good schools and good teachers. It is very desirable that they should be enabled to do so. It is a good thing if the people on the spot, who best understand whether proposed public works, such as roads and bridges, are worth the cost of building them, should decide whether or not they are ready to provide the money. For all these reasons, it is desirable



THE CITY HALL, FERNIE, BRITISH COLUMBIA
Note the trees surrounding this striking building.

that the people of each district should be organized so as to carry on their own government in the matters which concern them alone.

Local communities have at all times been very insistent on the right to manage their own affairs, and they have usually been very successful in their demands. Communities which have this right and are organized for this purpose are said to possess *local self-government*. A city, town, village, or district enjoying local self-government is

called a *municipality,* and its government is known as *municipal government.*

Local self-government is very important, because it is by taking part in the affairs of local government that men and women often receive their best training in citizenship. In some of the countries in Europe, which since the war have had to organize their government on a free basis,



THE MUNICIPAL HALL, BURNABY, BRITISH COLUMBIA

The Municipal Hall is somewhat hidden by the trees. Note the procession of school children passing along the excellent pavement of the town.

it has been found far more difficult to establish local self-government than to create a national Parliament and a national Cabinet. The habit that our people has acquired of dealing with its local affairs through interesting the whole people in their conduct is one of its most valuable characteristics.

Municipal Government. Every power of a municipal government is conferred upon it by some Act of the provincial Legislature. The city of Vancouver is given its powers by a special Act, known as its *charter*. But most municipalities are organized under the general provisions of the *Municipalities Incorporation Act*. A community organized in this way is said to be *incorporated*. This means that its citizens have been made into a body which can act



THE PUBLIC LIBRARY, VANCOUVER
The library is on the corner of a very busy street.

collectively, and which can carry on business in much the same way as an individual does. You may make a contract with a city just as you may with an individual. If you are wronged by the action of the city, or of people employed by it, you can bring an action against the city in the courts just as you could sue an individual who had wronged you. And the city can own land or other property just as an individual can.

City and District Municipalities.—There is very little difference between a city municipality and a district municipality, except that the governing bodies have different names in the two cases. A city municipality is governed by a *mayor* and *aldermen*, who form what is known as the *City Council*. A district municipality is governed by a *reeve* and *councillors*. We must think of the council in each case as corresponding on a small scale to a Legislature. On certain subjects it is authorized by the Provincial Legislature to make by-laws which, within their proper limits, have the force of laws. But we must also think of the council as having some of the executive duties which correspond to those of the members of the Executive Council in the case of the province. The aldermen or councillors not only pass by-laws, but they also administer them. Finally, we must notice that the city or district municipality has permanent employees who carry on the



A SCENE IN STANLEY PARK, VANCOUVER
One of the finest parks in North America.

routine work of the administration under the supervision of the council, just as the civil servants of the province carry on its administrative work. We must examine how these councils are composed, how their members are chosen, and what powers they exercise.

Municipal Councils.—The council, in a city municipality, comprises not less than five and not more than ten aldermen. In a district municipality the council consists of from five to seven councillors. Mayor and aldermen, reeve and councillors, are all elected by the citizens. They must be British subjects of the full age of twenty-one years. But there is a further qualification which is not imposed in the case of candidates for the provincial Legislature. They must own land and buildings of a certain value within the municipality. The value is not very great, and the object of this requirement is to make sure that the members of the council are persons who have a permanent interest in the municipality. No one may be elected who has a contract with the municipality or a disputed claim against it. The object of this rule is to avoid placing anyone in a position in which his duty to the public and his own personal interests are in conflict. Some men, but by no means all, act honorably under such circumstances.

Who may vote.—Only British subjects may vote in municipal elections, and, just as in the case of provincial elections, Asiatics and North American Indians are excluded from voting on racial grounds. A further requirement is that the voter must be in some way identified with the municipality in which he votes. Mere presence on the election day is not enough. He may be a property holder, or the holder of a trade licence, or a householder. A list of qualified voters is prepared every year and closed at the end of November. It is posted on the fifth of December, and objections to it are heard before a *Court of Revision*

consisting of representatives of the council. From the decisions of this court there is an appeal to a police magistrate or to a judge. A *Returning Officer* is appointed by a municipal by-law, and the procedure for the nomination of candidates and for their election is very similar to that used in Dominion and provincial elections.

The Council Meetings and the Conduct of Business.—Regular meetings of municipal councils are held at intervals



A WING OF THE ROYAL JUBILEE HOSPITAL, VICTORIA
Only a part of the buildings of the Hospital are here shown.

fixed by each particular council. The mayor, or reeve, presides. Proceedings are conducted in accordance with a *set of rules*, but the rules are less elaborate than those used to regulate procedure in the House of Commons or the Legislative Assembly. Discussion can naturally be much more informal when the numbers taking part are small. Minutes of the meetings are kept to preserve a record of proceedings for future reference. Many matters which concern only particular departments of the business of the municipality are looked after by special

committees appointed by the council. There may be, for instance, committees on finance, public health, police, fire, water supply, etc. These committees present their reports and their recommendations to the whole council for approval. The decisions of the council are made by a majority vote of its members. As in the Legislature, voting is always open, and the proceedings are public.

A municipal council may pass by-laws dealing with a very wide range of important matters, of which the following are examples: the regulation of traffic on the streets and of the sort of vehicle that may be used; the regulation of buildings to ensure that they are not dangerous because of fire risks or insanitary; the supervision of many trades, such as those of the plumber and the chimney-sweep; the supervision of amusements; the prevention of insect pests which may spread from one man's land to another's; the encouragement of new industries by grants of money or by freeing them from the obligation to pay taxes; the inspection of premises where food is prepared; the undertaking of public services, such as the provision of a water supply or of electric light or gas; the relief of the poor and the care of the sick. These examples show how wide are the powers of a municipality. The people of each municipality may make use of these powers if they please, and it is only in a few cases that they are compelled to take action.

When matters of special importance are being dealt with, a by-law cannot be made by the municipal council alone, but must be submitted to a popular vote as well. In such a case, a bare majority of those who vote is not sufficient to enact the proposed by-law. The decision must be made by a majority of three-fifths of those who vote. If the expenditure of money is involved in the proposed by-law, only people who own property in the municipality are allowed to vote. The reason for this rule is that most of

the taxation of the municipality is imposed on property, and that the property owners are liable to be taxed to pay interest on the debts of the municipality, while those people who own no property can escape all liability for the debts of the municipality by going to live somewhere else.

Municipal Finance. –From what we have learned of the powers of municipalities, we can understand that every



BOYS AT WORK AT THE PROVINCIAL INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, PORT COQUITLAM, BRITISH COLUMBIA
This institution is under the control of the province.

municipality must provide a revenue with which to pay for the expenditure involved in exercising these powers. An enterprising municipality which engages in many undertakings will require a very large revenue. When large sums of money are needed for permanent improvements or for expenses which are not likely to recur frequently, a municipality may borrow the money by selling what are called *debentures*. A debenture is a promise to pay money

on a definite future date and usually contains a promise to pay interest at fixed intervals—generally every six months. At first sight, it may seem that there can be no advantage in merely postponing the date on which a large payment has to be made, particularly if it is necessary to pay interest on the money. The real purpose of borrowing the money required for a heavy expenditure is to spread the expenditure over a number of years and so to avoid unusually heavy taxation in any one year.

When debentures are sold, a sum of money is set aside every year to form what is called a *sinking fund*. This fund is invested in safe ways and amounts to enough to repay the borrowed money when the date of repayment fixed in the debentures arrives. The provincial government inspects the accounts of the municipalities and prevents them from borrowing more than they can safely promise to repay. It also sees that proper sinking funds are maintained, whenever debentures are sold.

While the sale of debentures avoids the need for specially heavy taxation in a particular year, it increases the amount of taxation in the long run; for both the sinking fund and the interest must sooner or later be provided by taxation. We must, therefore, consider the sources of revenue on which the municipalities can rely.

The municipalities receive certain aid from the provincial government. Half the profit from the government's liquor business is divided between the municipalities and the hospitals. The revenue obtained from a tax on the money deposited for betting at race meetings is distributed among the municipalities in proportion to their population. One-third of the revenue from licences from motor vehicles (other than motor-cycles) is also distributed among the municipalities in the same proportion, but this money must be placed in a separate fund and used for the upkeep of the

roads in the municipality. Municipalities are allowed to impose taxes of their own, but they must limit themselves to taxes which have been specially authorized. Licence fees may be charged for the right to carry on certain occupations within the municipality. Some of the services undertaken by the municipality may produce a revenue.



THE GENERAL HOSPITAL, VANCOUVER
Only a part of the buildings are here shown.

Water rates are an example of a payment for a service rendered by the municipality.

The chief source of revenue of every municipality, however, is the taxation of land and, perhaps, of the improvements which have been made upon it. Every year an assessment roll is prepared showing by whom each lot of land in the municipality is owned, what it is worth apart from the improvements on it, and what the improvements are worth. Each owner has an opportunity of disputing

the value set on his land and improvements, if he considers it too high. The improvements are not taxed as heavily as the land. Half their value must be exempted from taxation, and a municipality may, if it chooses, exempt a larger proportion. The object of this policy is to encourage people to make improvements, such as putting a house on the land. Sometimes land is exempted from taxation because of the use to which it is put. After deducting the value of the land and improvements exempted from taxation from the total value of the land and improvements in the municipality, the value of the taxable property is ascertained.

The next problem is to find out at what rate a tax must be fixed to give the revenue which the municipality needs. The value of the taxable property is divided by the amount of the revenue needed, and the revenue is found to be a small fraction of the value of the property. This fraction is expressed as so many one-thousandth parts of the value of the taxable property, or as so many mills on the dollar. A separate rate is calculated for each of three purposes: (*a*) interest and sinking funds required for the municipal debt; (*b*) school purposes, which will be explained in a later chapter; (*c*) general purposes. A municipality must collect whatever rate may be necessary for the first two of these purposes. But, for the general purposes, the rate must not exceed twenty mills on the dollar. If this limit is reached, a municipality must reduce its expenditure.

There are, of course, many people who are not reached by a tax based on the ownership of land. The council of any municipality may impose what is called a *poll-tax* on every male person residing within the municipality who is not entitled to exemption on one of the following grounds: (*a*) because he is over sixty and his income is less than $700 a year; (*b*) because he is enrolled in the active militia of

Canada, or is engaged in active naval or military service; (*c*) because he has been certified medically unfit after service overseas in the Great War; (*d*) because he has paid taxes to the value of five dollars on land in any municipality in the province; (*e*) because he has already paid a poll-tax in another municipality.

Police.—Every municipality must maintain a police force and must see that the laws of the Dominion and of the



RIVERSIDE PARK, KAMLOOPS, BRITISH COLUMBIA
Many of the smaller towns in British Columbia have beautiful parks.

province as well as its own by-laws are properly observed. This force is controlled by a *Board of Commissioners of Police* consisting of the mayor, or reeve, and two commissioners, who are elected for a term of two years and one of whom retires each year. If the policing of a municipality is not adequately carried out, the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council may direct the *Superintendent of Provincial Police*

to take charge of it. If this is done, the municipal police must take their orders from the Superintendent.

Public Health.—The council of every municipality is a *Board of Health*. It is part of its duties to see that the regulations made by the Provincial Board of Health are carried out. It also makes its own regulations. Every city municipality must employ a *Medical Health Officer*, and any other municipality may be required to do so. His duties are to inspect places which it is important to keep in a strictly sanitary condition, such as those where food is prepared or sold, and to recommend to the council measures for stopping the spread of disease. It is the duty of every municipality to send to the Sanitorium at Tranquille all persons suffering from tuberculosis, who are willing to undergo treatment but unable to afford the expense.

Provincial Control.—Not only does the Legislature of the province provide for the organization of the municipalities and confer their powers upon them, but it also provides for inspection to ensure that these powers are properly exercised. An officer, called the *Inspector of Municipalities*, is appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council. He may hold inquiries into any matter of municipal business. These inquiries are open to the public. Witnesses may be compelled to attend and to give evidence. Money by-laws passed by municipalities may be submitted to the inspector for approval. If he gives a certificate, the validity of the by-law cannot be disputed in the courts.

The Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council may make regulations, which need not be the same for all municipalities, prescribing the way in which the municipal accounts are to be kept. If the municipality borrows money by selling its bonds, the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council may require these bonds to be made in a special form. The municipalities are required to submit every year to the Inspector of

Municipalities a statement showing their financial position. They must show that the proper sinking funds have been provided and must say how the money in these funds is invested. The investments which may be made are carefully regulated.

Village Municipalities.—There are areas in the province which are not included in any municipality. The inhabitants of such an area, if they do not exceed one thousand in number, may ask to be organized as a *village municipality*. The Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council is empowered to grant their petition and to give them certain powers. The governing body consists of a *Board of Commissioners*, three in number, whose *chairman* corresponds to the mayor or reeve of the other municipalities. These commissioners are elected every two years. They appoint a *clerk*, a *treasurer*, an *assessor*, a *collector*, and such other officials as they think necessary, but the same individual may be appointed to more than one of these offices. The commissioners have wide and varied powers for dealing with such matters as public works, the establishment of hospitals and libraries, public health, building regulations, highways, traffic on the highways, fire-prevention, and the proper treatment of animals. The village municipalities are bound to make provision for the maintenance of the poor. They have powers of taxation but may not borrow money beyond the amount of the revenue for the current year.

Questions and Suggestions

1. In what municipality do you live? What is its population? What is its area? Who is its mayor, or reeve? When was the municipality organized?

2. What are the duties of the chief officers of your municipality? Who hold the offices? Attend a meeting of the council and write a

description of it. What officials are elected and what officials are appointed?

3. What is the rate of taxation in your municipality? Are improvements taxed? Has there been much discussion as to whether they should be taxed or exempted?

4. What work does your municipality undertake on behalf of public health, education, police protection, local improvements? Does it provide parks and playgrounds? Are they well kept? Do the public help to keep these places attractive? or do they make it difficult for the municipality to look after them? How much is spent on the roads? Are they in good condition?

5. Are the streets in your village, town, or city well planned? Are any of them too narrow? Have any special regulations been made about motor traffic on them? Are there any dangerous corners?

6. What organization is provided for fighting fires? Where does your municipality get its water? Is the supply ample? Is the quantity which citizens may use ever limited?

7. Has your municipality ever made grants of money, or exemptions from taxation, in favor of any business? What benefits were expected from any grant that was made? Were these benefits actually received?

8. On what grounds did the candidates at the last municipal election ask the citizens to vote for them?

CHAPTER XVIII

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

The Necessity for Laws.—It has been frequently stated in the earlier chapters that people living together in a community have likes and dislikes in common, that they work with one another for the common good, and that the interests of the individual are wrapped up in the welfare of the community as a whole. We must remember that these statements are true in a general way, but we must not forget that each individual differs from every other individual, that no two people are alike in temperament and ability, and that very few have exactly the same interests and ambitions. It is because of these differences that we are able to help one another as much as we can.

We make friends who have some qualities which we have not, and who find in us qualities which they have not. But, if we make friends for this reason, we sometimes make enemies. At any rate, we sometimes find people with qualities which we dislike. Our general interests may well be the same, but there are times when our immediate interests may be in sharp conflict. We cannot all be first in the class; we cannot all be captain of the football team; we cannot all be the strongest or the most popular. We none of us want to fight about these things, or to waste much time over them. We want to settle them quickly, quietly, sensibly. We want to get our fair share of the good things, but we do not seriously want to get more.

It is at this point that rules are useful. They decide for us what we may do and what we may not do. We know

that, if we obey them, most other people will obey them too. We feel that as long as we obey them and treat other people fairly, others will obey them and will treat us fairly. At any rate we feel this, if we believe the rules to be good rules.

When disputes arise, we know that there are rules by which they can be settled. We know, too, that a third party may often be able to settle fairly a point that the two people most directly concerned would continue to quarrel about. If we expect a dispute to arise, as we do when we play a game of football or of baseball, we appoint someone in advance to settle the dispute. We call him an umpire or a referee. When he makes a decision, we accept it good-temperedly, even if we think that he has made a mistake.



THE COURT HOUSE, NELSON, BRITISH COLUMBIA
Note the unusual construction here.

If we turn from games to life, we must call the rules *laws* and the umpire a *judge*. When we engage in business we expect that we shall have disputes: that some day we shall make an agreement with someone else; and that we shall think that it means one thing, and that the other party will think that it means something else. Or, perhaps, we shall some day do something which someone else thinks that we have no right to do. Our laws have been made, or have grown up, to deal with all sorts of possible disputes. And a system of courts has been established by which the meaning of the laws can be explained and justice administered.

Various Kinds of Laws.—We have said that laws may be made or may have grown up. In Canada we have laws of both kinds. If laws have been made by a legislative body—by the Parliament of Canada, by the Legislative Assembly of British Columbia, or by the Parliament of the United Kingdom—we call them *statutes*. If, on the other hand, laws have never been made by a legislative body, but consist of the rules which have been applied in the courts to decide the cases which came before them, we speak of them as the *common law*. The common law consists of the laws which were enforced in the King's courts in England. The laws were made by the judges, and as new situations arose new laws were devised to meet them. But the judges did not admit for a moment that they were making laws. They said that they were only stating laws which already existed. Whenever they could, they followed the example of judges in earlier cases. The fact that a judge had applied a rule proved that the rule was a law. The law arose that former decisions must be followed. So, to-day, if we want to find out what the law is, we must turn to the reports of decided cases and find what rules have been applied by judges.

English law, consisting both of statutes and of common law, was carried by English colonists across the seas to the American colonies, to Canada, to Australia, to New Zealand. When the colonies acquired governments of their own, later English statutes no longer applied to them, and they made new laws for themselves. In British Columbia, English law—both common law and statute law—was adopted as it stood in 1858. All the other provinces except Quebec have English Common Law as the basis of their law. In Quebec, the people have preferred to retain the French law, whose use was guaranteed to them when the territory was ceded by France in 1763.

Laws are also classified as *civil* or *criminal*. Civil law has to do with settling disputes between individuals. For instance, a man agrees to build a house for you in accordance with a certain plan, and you, in return, agree to pay him a certain sum of money when he finishes the work. When the house is completed, you think that the plan has not been followed, or that the materials used have not been of the quality agreed on. So you refuse to pay for the house. The laws which would have to be applied in deciding a dispute of this character are part of the civil law. Criminal law, on the other hand, has to do with offences which are considered as directed against society. Although an individual may be wronged by them, yet the deed is of so outrageous a nature that society in general is injured too. The wrongdoer is not forced to compensate the injured party, but he is punished for his wrongdoing. Serious offences of this nature are called *crimes*. Examples are: treason, murder, theft, robbery, burglary, receiving stolen goods. But much less serious things may also be crimes: betraying a trade secret, receiving a secret commission, finding and selling a branded log. In Canada, only the Dominion government can pass laws making offences crimes, but the duty of administering the laws made by the Parliament of Canada falls on the provinces.



THE COURT HOUSE, PRINCE RUPERT, BRITISH COLUMBIA
Note the solid nature of this building.

The Courts of Law. We have *courts of law* for the purpose of administering the law. When someone is

accused of a crime, the question of whether he really committed the crime or not must be definitely decided. It is to the court that we go for a decision. When a dispute has arisen between two individuals, they may go to the court and ask it to decide who is right and who is wrong. The dispute may have to do with the stories which the two parties tell. One may say that the other agreed to buy his horse for fifty dollars; and the other may say that he never agreed to buy the horse at all. In such a case the court has to decide who is telling the truth. Or the dispute may be about the exact nature of the law. Both parties may agree about the sale of the horse; but one may say that the horse was unsound, and that he is therefore entitled to get back the money that he paid for him; while the other says that, even if the horse is unsound, there is no law permitting the purchaser to return him to the seller. The court may be asked to say whether there is such a law or not.

We have a great number of different courts, each suited to deal with a different class of case. Some are arranged for cases in which only small sums are involved in the dispute and in which the parties want a quick and final decision. Others are suited for dealing with important cases, in which very large sums are at stake, or very important questions are raised. Some courts deal only with *appeals* from the decisions of lower courts, on the ground that those courts have made a mistake. We shall examine some of our more important courts, remembering, however, that the list is not exhaustive.

Justices of the Peace.—A great deal of the work involved in the administration of the law is done by *justices of the peace*. These justices are appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council and may be given jurisdiction throughout the province or only in some particular part of it. They are not necessarily lawyers. We may think of them

as respected citizens entrusted with judicial work. Usually professional judges and magistrates are either themselves justices of the peace or are expressly given the powers of these justices. It is a justice of the peace that must be approached, if authority is desired to search some building in which some evidence of wrongdoing is believed to be concealed. It is before a justice of the peace that any person may lay an information against someone whom he suspects of having committed an offence. Whenever a penalty is prescribed by any law of the province and nothing further is said as to the way in which it is to be recovered, the penalty may be inflicted by a justice of the peace.

Stipendiary Magistrates and Police Magistrates.— Salaried, or stipendiary, magistrates may be appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council. They are usually given, within a definite area, wider powers than those of a justice of the peace. The Lieutenant-Governor may appoint a *police magistrate* for a municipality and may fix the salary which the municipality is to pay. We must remember that these magistrates have to enforce the laws of the Dominion of Canada as well as those of the province of British Columbia and that they are recognized by the Dominion government, although they are appointed by that of the province. Persons accused of any of a large number of criminal offences may be tried summarily before a magistrate. In some cases they may be tried whether they consent or not; but in the more serious cases they are entitled to choose between being tried by the magistrate or committed for trial by a jury.

Any stipendiary magistrate, or any police magistrate, or any two justices of the peace, if specially appointed to do so by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, may deal with claims for debts which do not exceed the amount of

one hundred dollars. The courts held before such magistrates are called *Small Debts Courts*. No special forms are observed, and the proceedings are made as simple and as rapid as possible. There is an appeal from these courts to the nearest *County Court*, or to a judge of the *Supreme Court*.

The County Courts.—The province of British Columbia is divided into eight divisions called *counties*. Each county has a *County Court* with one or more judges. These



THE COURT HOUSE, VANCOUVER

This is one of the most beautiful buildings in Western Canada.

judges are appointed by the Dominion government. In court they are entitled to be addressed as "Your Honor". These courts may deal with civil actions in which the amount involved does not exceed certain limits, which vary according to the nature of the dispute. In some cases a jury is used if one of the parties asks for it. In criminal matters these courts can try all but the most serious offenders, unless they demand to be tried by a jury. There

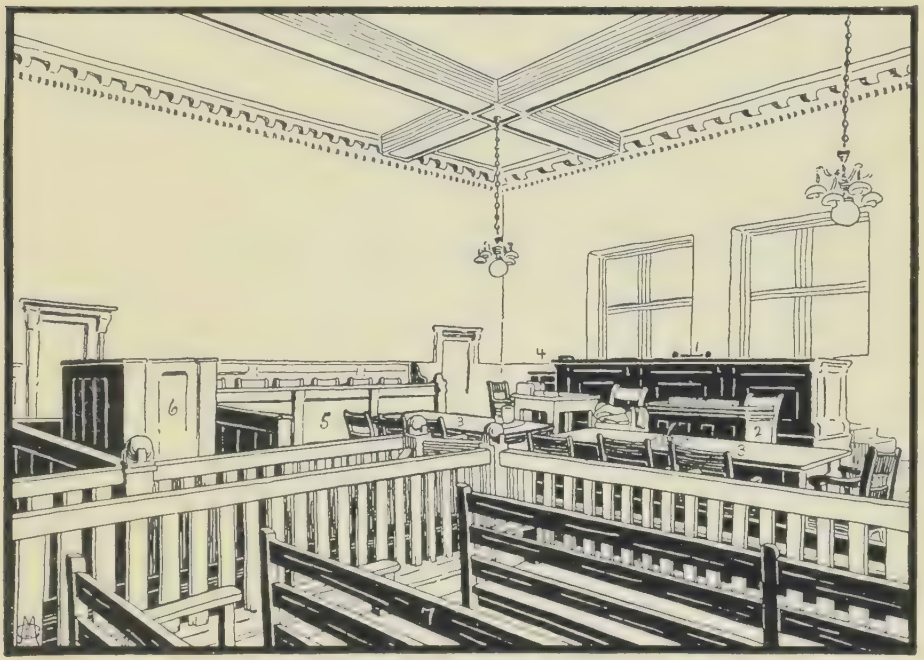
is generally an appeal from a decision of a County Court to the *Court of Appeal.*

The Supreme Court.—The *Supreme Court of British Columbia* consists of a *chief-justice* and five other *judges.* They are appointed by the Dominion government. They hold office for life and cannot be removed from office except by an address from both houses of the Parliament of Canada. In court they are addressed as "Your Lordship". In ordinary intercourse they are spoken of as "The Honorable Mr. Justice — — — — —." Continuous sittings are held in Victoria and Vancouver. Other places are visited from time to time by a judge of the court. The Supreme Court has jurisdiction in all civil and criminal matters. There is an appeal from its decisions to the Court of Appeal.

The Court of Appeal.—The *Court of Appeal* consists of a chief-justice and four other judges. It deals with appeals from the County Courts and from the Supreme Court. Cases are ordinarily heard before all the judges of the court and not, as in the lower courts, before a single judge. The Court of Appeal sits alternately at Victoria and Vancouver. Its decisions are not final, for there may be a further appeal either to the *Supreme Court of Canada* or to the *Privy Council* in England.

The Supreme Court of Canada.—The most important of the courts established by the Dominion of Canada is the *Supreme Court of Canada.* It consists of a chief-justice and five other judges. Sittings are held at Ottawa. To this court appeals may be taken from the Court of Appeal in British Columbia and from the higher courts in the other provinces. It is also the duty of the Supreme Court of Canada to give opinions, if required to do so by the government of Canada, as to whether the Parliament of Canada is within its powers in enacting proposed laws.

The Exchequer Court of Canada.—The *Exchequer Court of Canada* deals with cases which affect the Canadian revenue. It is before this court that people must appear if they have not paid the income tax imposed by the Parliament of Canada. Its sittings are not confined to Ottawa, but are held at various places throughout Canada.



THE INTERIOR OF A COURT ROOM

1. The judge's seat. 2. The clerk's seat. 3. The counsels' seats. 4. The witness box. 5. The jury box. 6. The prisoner's box. 7. Seats for spectators.

The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.—From any part of the British Empire, except the British Isles, appeals may be carried to the *King-in-Council*. In some cases this right of appeal has been restricted by legislation, and in all cases the Council itself will decide whether the appeal is one which it is prepared to hear. But an important civil case may be appealed from the Court of

Appeal of British Columbia to the *Judicial Committee of the Privy Council* instead of to the Supreme Court of Canada. And if such a case is appealed to the Supreme Court of Canada and its decision does not agree with that of the Court of Appeal in British Columbia, there may be a further appeal to the Privy Council. In both cases the leave of the court appealed from is ordinarily required. The composition of the Judicial Committee is not the same for all cases. Many of the members are the same judges who sit in the *House of Lords*, which is the highest court in Great Britain. Others are judges from other parts of the Empire.

Court Procedure.—Now that we have described the various courts before which the affairs of the citizens of British Columbia may come, let us see how an ordinary court does its work.

Civil Cases.—When one man thinks that he has a good claim against another he obtains from the court a *writ* or order directing that other to answer his claim. The other, called the *defendant*, then enters what is called an *appearance*, which is notice that he intends to dispute the claim. The first party, or *plaintiff*, then files in the office of the court, and communicates to the defendant, a *statement of claim*, which sets out briefly the grounds on which he considers that he is entitled to redress. The defendant has a fixed number of days within which to produce his *defence*. The object of these statements is to bring out clearly the points that are in dispute. A day can then be fixed for trial. When this day comes, the plaintiff has to prove the truth of the statements which he has made. The defendant may either disprove the statements, or merely show that they have not been adequately proved, or may prove further facts which entitle him to resist the plaintiff's claim. When proof is given by the sworn

statements of *witnesses* (or people who have seen or heard what took place), these witnesses are first questioned by the party who has brought them forward, and are then closely questioned, or *cross-examined*, by the other party. When this evidence has been heard, the judge, or jury if there is one, decides which party has produced a true story. The judge then applies the law to the facts which have been established and gives judgment.

In all these proceedings—in preparing their statements, in examining their witnesses, in discussing the law—the parties usually employ lawyers, who are men who have made this sort of work their profession.

Criminal Cases.—When a person has reasonable grounds for believing that a criminal offence has been committed, he may go before a magistrate or justice of the peace and make a statement under oath. This is called an *information*. The magistrate may then issue a *summons* ordering the accused to appear, or a *warrant* ordering the police to arrest him. When he appears, the magistrate hears the evidence against him and any evidence which he may bring forward in his defence. As in the case of civil proceedings, the parties are usually represented by lawyers.

If the case is one with which the magistrate may deal, he usually disposes of the matter at once. If he finds the accused guilty, he passes sentence on him; if he finds him not guilty, he discharges him. In more serious cases the magistrate merely records the evidence, and, if he thinks it sufficient, he *commits the accused for trial*. During the interval between the commitment and the time set for the trial the accused, except in very serious cases, will be allowed his liberty, if he can find friends who will give security, or *bail*, that he will appear when called on. The accused may choose a speedy trial before the County Court; or he may wait to be tried by the Supreme Court at its

sittings for this purpose, which are called *assizes*. The proceedings against him are conducted by the Attorney-General or his representative in the name of the King.

When the prisoner is brought before the assizes, a body of citizens, thirteen in number, called the *Grand Jury*, is asked to decide whether there is sufficient evidence to make it proper to proceed with the prosecution. This body of men may examine the witnesses who gave evidence at the *preliminary hearing* before the magistrate. Unless they find a *true bill* against the accused, he is discharged. If a true bill is found, the accused is placed on trial generally before a *petit jury*. This trial jury consists of twelve men, and its *verdict*, or decision, must be unanimous to be valid. It has to decide the guilt or innocence of the accused.

The accused is asked to say whether he is guilty, or not guilty, of the offence with which he is charged. The jury is then chosen, and both the accused and the prosecution have the right to reject men whom they think likely to be prejudiced. Witnesses are then called and examined, as in the case of a civil trial. The judge refuses to allow questions that are unfair. When the evidence has been heard, the lawyers on both sides address the jury. The judge then *sums up* the evidence, explains the law on the questions at issue to the jury, and explains to them the exact questions which they have to decide. The jury then retires to consider its verdict. If it finds the accused not guilty, he is discharged. If it finds him guilty, he is sentenced by the judge. If it cannot come to a unanimous decision, a new trial is held. It is important to bear in mind that a man should not be found guilty on a mere probability. The prosecution is bound to prove, so as to leave no reasonable doubt in the mind of a single juror, that the accused is guilty of the offence with which he is charged.

The Effect of the Decisions of the Court.—When sentence has been pronounced in a criminal case, it must be executed. There are special officers for this purpose, and places of confinement are maintained by the Dominion government for criminals who have been condemned to imprisonment. In civil cases the judgment is probably complied with by the losing party without compulsion, but, if necessary, the *sheriff*, or some other officer of the court, may be directed to seize and sell sufficient property of the debtor to satisfy the claim. In criminal cases it is the King who is considered as the injured party, and it is the King's representative who may pardon the offender. The Governor-General may pardon offences against the laws of Canada, and the Lieutenant-Governor of each province may pardon offenders against laws made by that province. The power of pardon is exercised in both cases on the advice of the responsible ministers.

Questions and Suggestions

1. What is meant by English Common Law? Distinguish between common and statute law, between civil and criminal law. Why has the Parliament of Canada the sole right to legislate in regard to criminal law? In the United States each state makes its own criminal laws. Are there any disadvantages in such an arrangement?

2. Who is the magistrate or justice of the peace who deals with criminal cases in your community? In what county do you live? Who are the county court judges in your county? Who is the Chief Justice of British Columbia? Who is the Chief Justice of the Court of Appeal?

3. Name the courts of law in British Columbia. Have you ever been in one? What is a jury? How is a jury chosen? Do you know anyone who has ever served on a jury? What are the differences between a grand jury and a petit jury? Are juries necessary?

4. What are the differences between civil and criminal trials? What is meant by: bail, warrant, summons, pardon? Is there a special court for juvenile offenders in your community?

5. Can you name any Canadian judge who has been a member of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council?

CHAPTER XIX

EDUCATION IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

The Educational System.—In earlier chapters the importance of education has been explained, and it has been shown that under modern conditions longer and better education is required, even for those who are not looking forward to entering the professions, than was the case half a century ago. In British Columbia the government has developed an educational system which aims at making a good elementary education available to all children, and at giving ample opportunity to those who wish for a high school, or secondary education. Indeed, it has been made compulsory for the parents or guardians of all children between seven and fifteen years of age to send them to the public schools or to provide them with equal opportunities elsewhere. The education is free of charge, and many of the text-books used by the children are supplied by the government. Finally, university education is provided on terms that are



THE HIGH SCHOOL, VICTORIA

designed to make it open to those who really require it. The result has been to build up a great educational system.

The Department of Education.—The Department of Education was mentioned in an earlier chapter as one of the departments of the public service. At its head there is the *Minister of Education*, who is one of the responsible ministers included in the Executive Council. The administrative work of the Department is carried on by a staff of civil servants under the direction of the *Superintendent of Education*, who corresponds to the deputy ministers in the other departments. His office is a very important one. A commission which made a report in 1925 on the school system of British Columbia, writes, "In our opinion the duties of his office are even more important and exacting than those of any deputy minister in the civil service. The interests of one hundred thousand children and of all the ratepayers of the province are directly involved in the administration of our public educational system." The staff of the Department includes an *Assistant Superintendent*, two *High School Inspectors*, sixteen *Inspectors of Elementary Schools*, a *Director of Technical Education*, a *Director of Elementary Agriculture*, and an officer in charge of the distribution of free text-books.



A SCHOOL GARDEN, KELOWNA, B.C.

The Council of Public Instruction. – Wide powers of supervision and of action, when it is considered advisable, are entrusted to the *Council of Public Instruction*, which consists of the Executive Council of the province. It is this council which decides what is to be taught in the schools, what books are to be used, and what qualifications are to be required from teachers. We shall see many examples of its wide discretionary powers when we describe the rural schools of the province.



A STOCK-JUDGING COMPETITION

The School District. For school purposes, the people of the province are grouped into districts. Of these there are three main classes: *municipal school districts*, *community school districts*, and *rural school districts*. A municipal school district corresponds to a city or district municipality, but additional territory may be included for school purposes. A community school district may be formed, outside a municipality, by the Council of Public Instruction, for persons who are living a communal or tribal life. A rural school district is any school district not of either of the first two classes.

In each municipal school district there is a *Board of*

School Trustees, consisting of seven, five, or three members, according to the number of school children in the case of city municipalities. In district municipalities there are always five trustees. The board manages the affairs of all the schools in its district. It meets at least once a month. Its officers consist of a *chairman* and a *secretary*. The former is one of its members chosen to preside at its meetings; the latter keeps the records of the meetings. He may or may not be a member of the board, and he may receive a salary. The accounts of the board are audited by an *auditor* appointed by the municipal council.

The trustees who compose the board are elected by the ratepayers in the same way as are the aldermen or councillors. A candidate for the office of school trustee must either possess the qualifications required for an alderman or councillor in the municipality, or be the husband or wife of someone who possesses these qualifications. In addition, every candidate must be a resident of the district. A trustee's term of office is two years, but whenever a new district is constituted some of the trustees are elected for one year only. The result is that some new trustees are elected each year. A retiring trustee may be re-elected. The trustees are elected at the same time as the municipal council and are chosen by the same voters. If, however, additional territory has been added to the municipality to form the school



A RURAL SCHOOL, BALFOUR, B.C.
Note the closeness of the mountains to the school.

district, a separate voters' list is prepared for the ratepayers of that territory.

In a rural school district, there is a *Board of School Trustees*, who are three in number. To be a candidate a person must be a British subject and either a qualified voter in the district or the husband or wife of such a voter. A voter is a ratepayer resident in the district who is not, by race, Japanese, Chinese, Hindu, or Indian. An annual meeting of these voters is held at seven in the afternoon on the second Saturday in July. Its business is to elect trustees and decide any questions relating to the maintenance of the school. When the district is first formed, the trustee who gets the most votes holds office for three years, the trustee who gets the next largest number of votes for two, and the trustee who gets the third largest number for one. After the first meeting, one trustee is elected each year for a term of three years. If a local assessment for school purposes is necessary, it is voted by the meeting. An *auditor* is appointed by the meeting to examine the accounts of the trustees and report at the next meeting.



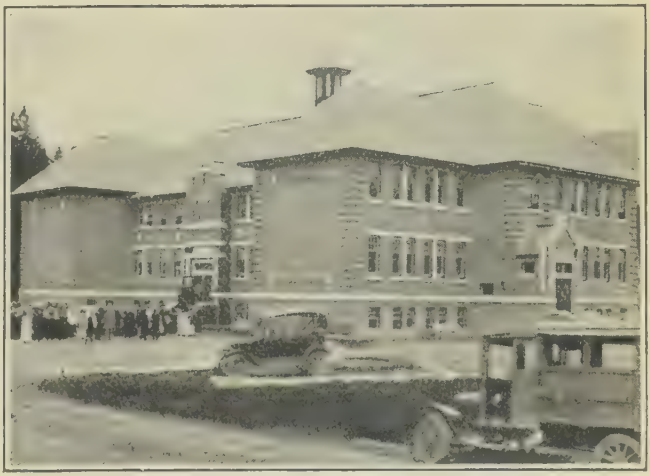
THE HIGH SCHOOL, TRAIL, B.C.
This is a typical town high school.

A community school district is dealt with by the Council of Public Instruction through an *Official Trustee* which it appoints. It may also appoint an *Advisory Committee* of three.

Special Schools.—In addition to the elementary and

high schools maintained by the public, there are a number of other schools in British Columbia. In the first place, there are public technical schools at Vancouver, Victoria, New Westminster, and Trail. They aim at training the pupils for vocational work and fitting them for particular trades or callings. In some of the high schools special instruction is given in agriculture.

In the second place, Indians on their reserves are under the charge of the Dominion government and not of the provincial government. Special schools are provided for the Indian children, and these are controlled by the Dominion.



THE ARMSTRONG AND SPALLUMCHEEN CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL

A special school is maintained by the province for the deaf and the blind. There is not, at present, a special school for those who are mentally defective.

Then there are many people who for one reason or another do not wish to make use of the schools provided by the government. They are at liberty to organize special schools at their own expense to meet their own requirements.

Finance of the School System.—The public school system which has just been described costs a great deal of money. Part of this money is provided by the provincial government and, therefore, comes from the sources of revenue mentioned in an earlier chapter. Part is provided

by the municipalities, whose financial arrangements have also been described. It remains to examine how the expenses are shared between the province and the municipalities, and what is done in the case of the rural school districts.

Municipal school districts are divided into four subclasses. A first class city municipality is one which has a school attendance of one thousand or more. It receives



THE PROVINCIAL NORMAL SCHOOL, VICTORIA

from the province a grant of $160 for each teacher, dental surgeon, or nurse employed in the schools. If the school attendance in a city municipality is less than one thousand, but more than two hundred and fifty, the grant is $520. A city municipality with a school attendance of less than two hundred and fifty receives a grant of $565. The fourth class includes all district municipalities. They receive a grant of $580 for each teacher, dental surgeon, or nurse.

Regularly organized rural school districts receive the same grant as district municipalities. Assisted rural school districts are in an even better position. The whole

of the salaries of their teachers is paid by the provincial government.

These are not the only grants made by the provincial government. Special help may be given in establishing courses of training for which special equipment is required: examples are manual training, domestic economics, physics and chemistry, and agriculture. Grants are given to help



THE PROVINCIAL NORMAL SCHOOL, VANCOUVER

in the formation of school libraries. If night classes are organized or technical schools opened, further provincial help may be obtained. In the case of rural schools part of the cost of conveying children to and from school may be borne by the province. A grant may be made for the erection of a school-house. The Council of Public Instruction has power to authorize a special grant in cases recommended by the Superintendent of Education.

Except in the case of some of the assisted rural schools, these provincial grants do not cover the whole cost of the

schools, and there remains a part, often a very large part, to be met locally. In municipal school districts the Board of School Trustees prepares an estimate of its ordinary expenditure and submits it to the council of the municipality, which is bound to find the money. We have seen that it does so by fixing a special rate for schools when the assessment is made. The board also makes an estimate of its extraordinary expenditure, which includes the provision of new school sites and buildings, furniture and equipment, and repairs. The council may approve of these estimates; in which case it either pays them from ordinary municipal revenue, or proposes to the electors a money by-law authorizing it to borrow the money. If this proposed by-law is defeated, the expenditure must not be incurred. If the council disapproves the estimates, it must submit to the electors a by-law authorizing the expenditure. Should the law be passed, the council must find the money.

In rural school districts there is no municipal council to deal with. The annual school meeting votes whatever money it considers necessary for the schools. As it has no means of collecting the money which it has voted, the task of collection is entrusted to the provincial government, which imposes the necessary rate on the property in the district and collects the money through its own officials as part of the provincial revenue. An equivalent amount is paid over to the school district.

This financial system is complicated. Its objects are to give some provincial help all round; to give most help to those who stand in most need of it, and who could not maintain their schools without it; and to encourage progressive action by local bodies by sharing with them the additional cost which it involves.

The Normal Schools. As a part of the educational system of the province it has been found necessary to

maintain schools, called *Normal Schools*, for the special training of teachers. One of these is situated in Victoria and one in Vancouver. Quite recently the training of teachers for high schools has been taken over by the *University of British Columbia*. Summer courses for teachers are conducted every year at Victoria, and there is a summer session for teachers at the University.

The University of British Columbia.—We have seen that elementary and secondary education in British Columbia is free and compulsory. Higher education is entrusted to the University of British Columbia, which was established in 1915 in temporary buildings in Vancouver. It has now been moved to new buildings on the magnificent site at Point Grey. University education is not compulsory. At first it was free, but in recent years fees have been charged and have steadily increased in amount. The University is not under the direct control of the government of the province. A *Board of Governors* manages its affairs, but the courses of study are determined by the members of the teaching staff, or *faculties*, and by a *Senate* in which various interests are represented. The number of students has rapidly increased and now exceeds fourteen hundred.

Young men and young women who go to the University for higher education do not all seek the same thing. Some wish for the special training necessary to qualify them for a profession. Others wish to develop their minds by learning something of the best thought of the past and of the great literatures of the world. All, no doubt, wish to fit themselves to become better men or women, and better citizens. All wish to prepare themselves for their future pursuits, and many feel that they will need both a general training of the mind and a special training suited to the occupation of their choice. The teaching in the University is planned to meet these requirements.



THE UNIVERSITY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

(1) The Science Building. (2) The Reading Room of the Library. (3) The Library Building.

The work of the University is divided among three faculties, each comprising a number of departments. In each department there is a professor and a number of associates and assistants, who are specially trained for their particular work. The *Faculty of Arts and Science* is designed to give to its students a liberal (or generous) education. In the two last years of the four-year course the students are allowed great freedom to choose those courses of study which they think will be of most interest or advantage to them. It is in this faculty that high school teachers receive their professional training. The *Faculty of Applied Science* and the *Faculty of Agriculture* train students to apply their scientific knowledge to industry, and also aim to give them the broader learning which they may need. Extension work, consisting of lectures or short courses designed to meet the needs of different classes of the public, has been undertaken, particularly by the Faculty of Agriculture.

Instruction is not the whole work of the University. It encourages research, or the pursuit of new knowledge, by its staff and its students. Indeed, it is only by a constant endeavor to extend their knowledge and to keep pace with new discoveries that professors can be efficient teachers.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Who is the Minister of Education in British Columbia? the Superintendent of Education?
2. What is your school district? Is it municipal or rural? How many school trustees are there in it? Who are they? When were they elected? Who is chairman of the school board? Who is its secretary?
3. Who is your school inspector? Is there a municipal inspector as well as a provincial inspector? Ask an inspector to tell you about other schools where conditions are different from those in your district.
4. What subjects are taught in the high schools that are not taught in the elementary schools? What is your nearest high school?
5. Where is the University of British Columbia situated? Who is the Chancellor? the President? Where are the Normal Schools?

CHAPTER XX

TAXATION IN GENERAL

Why Taxes are necessary.—In the chapters dealing with the Dominion, the provincial, and the municipal systems of government, we have referred many times to the enormous number of things that they provide for us. If you will write out all the things in the community that you would not have unless they were provided by government, you will be astonished at their number. You would not like to do without your schools, your sidewalks, roads, and highways, your police force and your fire brigade, your regular mail service, your street cars and your telephones, and the thousand other things that are necessary in our modern life. But all these things cost money, and, therefore, you will not be surprised at the very large sums required each year by our governments. These, of course, are raised by various forms of *taxation.*

Forms of Taxation.—We have already discussed this question in dealing with the revenue and expenditure of the Dominion, the provinces, and the municipalities, but taxation is so important and affects all of us so closely that it is well to see it as a whole.

Without government, we could not live as we do in modern civilized communities, and without taxation our governments could not live. Therefore, as we all benefit, we should all bear our share of the expense. But how should our shares be distributed? This question has produced endless discussion in the past. Some have tried to answer it by saying that each should pay in proportion

to the benefits he receives. This answer raises more questions than it solves. Our modern life is so complicated that it is impossible to find how much even two people benefit relatively, and it is not hard to see that many are unable to pay any taxes in return for the benefits received by them. Therefore, the attempt to make *benefit received* the basis of our system of taxation has been abandoned, and we have fallen back upon *ability to pay* as the only possible general basis.

In imposing direct taxes, our governments generally calculate ability to pay according to the wealth of those who are taxed. As a rule, therefore, people pay direct taxes in proportion to the property which they possess. In imposing indirect taxes, our governments generally calculate ability to pay in a different manner. The taxes are on particular articles, and it is taken for granted that those who are able to purchase these articles are able to pay the taxes which are added to their price. Therefore, governments prefer to tax articles consumed by the well-to-do rather than those which are the necessities of the poor. However, the need for a secure revenue often leads them to tax articles that are required by all or nearly all of the community. Direct taxes may be in more exact proportion to the wealth of those who pay them, but indirect taxes have the distinct advantage of being paid in small quantities and almost unconsciously. We do not feel indirect taxes as we feel direct taxes.

In Canada, the Dominion government has always been very reluctant to impose direct taxation upon the people. In fact, it was only the stress of the Great War and the necessity for raising the large amounts of money required to pay the interest on the debts incurred in the war, that caused the Dominion Parliament to consent to the imposition of our most direct tax, that on incomes.

Before the Great War, the customs and excise duties were the chief sources of revenue of the Dominion.

Let us now consider one or two of the more important forms of both direct and indirect taxation, which are imposed by one or other of the governments in Canada.

The Sales Tax. In addition to customs and excise duties, there is another indirect tax recently imposed by the Dominion government, which is productive of a very large and increasing revenue—*the sales tax*. This tax is an amount equal to four per cent of the actual, or invoice, price at which certain products are sold. Necessities of life, such as foods and certain other products are exempted from the operation of the tax, but on all other articles the amount of the tax must be paid in the first instance by the manufacturer or the importer. The manufacturer or the importer, as the case may be, may simply include the amount of the tax in his price to the wholesaler, or if he prefers, may add the amount of the tax to his invoice, the wholesaler passes it on to the retailer, and he to the consumer. In the end, therefore, as with customs and excise duties, the public pays the sales tax to the government.

Taxes on Property. The most important form of taxation in Canada is the general tax on property. This form of taxation is used by all cities, towns, villages, and municipalities, and by a few provinces to a limited extent. The tax is based on the amount of property a person owns. Officials called *assessors* value the property in the community, and the tax is fixed at a certain rate on the value of the entire property owned by the citizens. Thus, if a man owns property valued at $10,000 and the rate is fixed at two cents on the dollar, he will have to pay a tax of $200. Each person pays according to the *assessed value* of the property he owns.

It must not be thought, however, that this tax is alto-

gether direct, or that those who have no property entirely avoid its payment. For instance, when a family rents a house, they agree to pay the owner a certain sum each month for its use. The owner, in fixing the rent, takes into account the amount of taxes he has to pay on the property and increases the ordinary rental accordingly. In other words, he charges the amount of the tax against the property, pays the tax when it is due, and is reimbursed in monthly instalments as the rent is paid. So, the person who rents the house indirectly pays the property tax. Similarly, the merchant regards his property tax as part of his cost of doing business and raises the price of his goods accordingly.

Many cities and towns have an additional property tax, known as the *frontage* or *improvement tax*. It is imposed on the owners of property which has been improved by some special service, such as a sewer, a sidewalk, a pavement, or a water main. Sometimes, the municipal government in this way recovers the whole cost of these particular improvements; sometimes it recovers only part. Whatever it recovers is spread over a period of years, sometimes five and sometimes as much as thirty years. Some provinces use this method to help pay for highways. Part of the cost is assumed by the province, part is paid by the municipalities through which the highway passes, and part is charged against the properties along the route followed.

Taxes on Incomes.– This tax is imposed on incomes, that is, on the amount which a person earns each year. The income may include his salary, profits from his business, rents from property, interest on stocks, bonds, or shares, or any other money which comes to him in the ordinary course of his employment. Small incomes are exempted from the operation of the tax, but large incomes are heavily taxed in an ascending scale.

An unmarried man pays a Dominion income tax on all that he earns over one thousand five hundred dollars, and a married man on all that he earns over three thousand dollars plus five hundred dollars for each child under twenty-one years of age. On the difference between the amount of the exemption and the total income earned, the tax is graduated, commencing at two per cent. It grows heavier and heavier as the income rises. At a certain time each year, every citizen who is earning money must forward to the Dominion government a signed statement showing the exact amount of his income, and on this the tax is fixed. Heavy penalties are provided for false statements or failure to pay the amount due. The income tax is the most direct of all the taxes imposed by government.

Under the British North America Act, the provinces have the power to impose taxes on incomes, and sometimes this right has been exercised. In some provinces, also, the cities have been given the power to collect an income tax. In Toronto, for instance, certain exemptions are allowed, and all incomes over and above these exemptions are taxed at the rate struck by the city council covering the assessable property of the city.

Taxes on Inheritances.— We have mentioned the form of taxation, commonly known as *succession duties*. Some particulars may here be added. Like the income tax, it is a percentage over an exempted minimum, which percentage increases with the value of the estate. In most provinces estates of less than twenty-five thousand dollars are exempt from the inheritance tax, and further provisions are usually made by the government which imposes the tax to protect the interests of close relatives, such as wife and children, by not taxing their inheritances as heavily as it does bequests to distant relatives or those of no relationship whatever. Although the Dominion govern-

ment has the power to tax inheritances, so far it has not exercised that power. All our succession duties have been imposed by the provinces.

Other direct Taxes.—Another kind of tax sometimes imposed is the *poll tax*. This is a small tax paid by every person over twenty-one years of age in the community. This tax, however, is very difficult to collect, and is not generally regarded as a successful form of taxation. In cities and towns, occupants of business offices, stores, factories, etc., are sometimes taxed according to the floor space they occupy, or by some other method based upon their occupation of business premises. This is known as a *business tax*. Further, there are numerous other direct taxes, such as the taxes on automobiles, gasoline, etc., to most of which we have already referred in previous chapters.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Is there anything provided by government in your community that you would willingly do without? What are the chief reasons against imposing taxation in accordance with benefits received?

2. How is the inheritance tax collected in your province? Who has charge of the collection of the tax? Is a poll tax imposed in your town or city? Has it been successful as a tax? Find out from your father how the income tax is paid. Ask him to show you the form he filled out in filing his statement.

3. Find out what amounts were collected last year by the Dominion government in indirect taxes. Compare this with the amount received in direct taxes. Which of the two plans of taxation do you prefer? Ask one of the merchants in your neighborhood to show you how the sales tax is operated.

4. Find out from your father what was the assessment of his farm last year. What sum did he pay in taxes? What was the rate of taxation? How were the taxes in your town or city spent? How much was required for school purposes? For library purposes? For police and fire protection?

CHAPTER XXI

THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF CITIZENS

Rights and Duties.—We have now discussed the social the economic, and the political life of the community. From time to time, we have noted the attitude of the individual towards the community and the relationship of the community to the individual. We have seen that individuals have their rights. But there is often a danger in society from people insisting upon their rights and forgetting their duties. It is only by a full recognition of these duties that the cherished rights which society has evolved may be preserved. We cannot take everything and give nothing in return. The good citizen is prepared to meet all his obligations to the community.

Let us consider some of the rights of the individual in his relation to the community and some of the duties which devolve upon him.

SECTION I. THE RIGHTS OF THE CITIZEN

The Right to Protection of Life and Property. The life and property of every person in Canada is sacred, and each individual has the right to call upon government to protect him in the enjoyment of these rights. Such protection is afforded, as we have seen, through the civil and criminal law. If a man's property is required for public purposes, such as streets, parks, playgrounds, or schools, government may take that property on payment of its full value. A person has, also, the right to carry on whatever occupa-

tion he pleases, where and when he pleases, subject always to the rights of his fellow citizens. A man cannot, for instance engage in a dangerous business, such as the making of explosives, in a crowded tenement district, nor, with certain exceptions, can he carry on his usual business of buying and selling on Sunday. Such laws are framed for the purpose of protecting the public in general.

The Right to Protection against Disease.—We have already dealt with the danger to the community from the spread of contagious diseases, and we have learned how our governments try to protect us from this danger. We have the right to this protection, and the right to demand that the laws giving this protection be enforced. This is particularly true in crowded towns and cities, where the danger of the spread of infection is very great. This right carries with it, as we have seen, the duty of ourselves obeying the laws governing contagious diseases and of preventing others from breaking these laws.

The Right to free Speech.—One of the most important of the rights of the individual is that of *free speech*, that is, the right to hold his own opinions and to express these freely and openly both in speaking and in writing. This right to free speech lies at the very foundation of our free and democratic institutions. Lord Tennyson says in reference to England:

> "It is the land that freemen till,
> That sober-suited Freedom chose,
> The land, where girt with friends or foes
> A man may speak the thing he will."

This is equally true of Canada, but we must remember that our rights cease where those of other citizens begin. While we have the right to say what we will, we have no right to speak or write anything that will do injury to others. It

is sometimes necessary to expose the evil actions of those occupying important positions in government or in business, but the law will not uphold us, unless we can show that what we have said or written is in the public interest and without any malice on our part; and, further, we must be prepared to prove our statements in a court of law. We are entitled to express our opinions, but we must be careful that in expressing them we do not slander or libel any of our fellows.

The Right to Freedom of Worship.—It is a right of the citizens of Canada to worship as they please and to belong to any church that they may see fit to join. The government does not interfere in any way, either directly or indirectly, with the religious freedom of the individuals making up the community. It is unthinkable that a state church, such as many European countries have had, could be set up in Canada, or that the people should be compelled to accept any particular creed. The people may profess any religious beliefs they may wish, provided that these beliefs are not contrary to the law of the land and do not interfere with good citizenship.

The Right to Freedom from false Imprisonment. In Canada, no person can be arrested on a false charge or kept in prison without a fair trial. In many ways we are still governed by the legal rights which grew up in England, and one of these is the right of *habeas corpus*. By this right, if a man is arrested and is not brought to trial at the earliest possible moment, he may demand a writ of *habeas corpus*, that is, he may make application to be brought at once before the court for it to determine whether or not he is legally detained. The judge before whom this application is made is bound to take immediate action. Further, unless he is charged with a serious crime such as murder, the accused has the right to be released on bail

until the time fixed for his trial. Our laws are so framed as to make it as difficult as possible for an innocent person to suffer either the inconvenience or the disgrace of false arrest and imprisonment.

If you have read *Little Dorrit* by Charles Dickens, you will have some idea of the sufferings of those unfortunate people who were, under the old laws that were in force in England, kept in prison until in some way or other they were able to obtain the money to discharge their debts. Our laws do not provide for imprisonment for debt, unless the debtor is accused of fraud or of attempting to escape from his debts by leaving the country.

Further, our laws guarantee us protection against unlawful entry into our homes. Our houses may not be searched without a warrant from the proper authorities, and, even then, there must be reasonable grounds for the issue of such a warrant.

The Right to Trial by Jury.—Any citizen of Canada accused of a serious crime has a right to demand a trial by a *jury of his peers.* This is another of the old rights inherited from the law of England, and it is respected in our laws in Canada. The facts are presented in open court. The jury judges of these facts and returns its verdict accordingly. If a person is acquitted by a jury on a criminal charge, he cannot again be tried on the same charge. The usual number of persons on a jury is twelve, but in the province of Alberta it is six.

The Right to healthful Surroundings.—A child has very little chance for health or happiness if he lives in an untidy, insanitary, crowded neighborhood. Decent surroundings are necessary, if girls and boys are to grow up to be good citizens. Therefore, we have laws governing housing conditions, the provision of pure water and pure milk, the cleaning of the streets, the disposal of garbage and sewage,

and also provision for open spaces, playgrounds, and parks. To a certain extent, also, our laws recognize that these proper living conditions include good homes. Thus, as far as possible, we recognize the right of every child to have a good start in life.

The Right to a good Education.—The child who is allowed to grow up in ignorance, misses all those things of the mind and spirit which help to make life happier and better, has little chance to succeed in his business life, and is not likely to be a good and useful citizen. Therefore, as far as possible, we recognize the right of every child to a good elementary education, so that, when he leaves school, he may be in a position to start on an even footing with his fellows, and we recognize the necessity of requiring every child to receive such an education, so that he may be useful instead of harmful to society. Therefore, the law provides for public schools and insists that all children should either attend them or should receive an education up to their standard.

Questions and Suggestions

1. Why has a citizen no right to take the law into his own hands? Why should a citizen assist a policeman in the discharge of his duties? Can a person carry on any occupation he pleases without regard to his fellows? Can he sell harmful drugs without a license from the government? How does this license protect the public? Can a person buy poison whenever he pleases? Can he carry a revolver without permission from the police authorities? Can he hold a public meeting on the street without police permission? Can a man hire a public hall and preach any doctrine he pleases? Can we wear any kind of clothing we please?

2. Has a person the right to attend public meetings or to go to the theatre while under quarantine? Has he a right to travel on the street cars? Should he inform the officer of health, if he finds that his neighbor is breaking quarantine? Why? What is the importance of quarantine?

3. What is meant by libel? What is meant by slander? Is it a sufficient reason to justify us in a court of law to prove that the state-

ment we have made is true? Why not? Why is there no state church in Canada? Is there anything laid down definitely in the law of Canada which guarantees to every person in the community freedom of worship?

4. Find out from your History of England all you can about the *Habeas Corpus Act*. When was it passed? Is it in force in Canada? What rights has a person accused of a crime? In what circumstances can a man be imprisoned for debt? In what circumstances may the police enter your house and search it? If a murderer takes refuge in your house, may the police enter without a search warrant and arrest him? In what circumstances may the police arrest a person without a warrant of arrest? May a private citizen arrest a person found breaking the law? Can he hold an offender until the arrival of the police? Can the government compel a man to do something which he conscientiously believes to be wrong? What remedy have you against the police for false arrest or false imprisonment? Can you collect damages? In what circumstances can government expropriate your property?

SECTION II. THE DUTIES OF THE CITIZEN

The Duty of Obedience to Law.—If there is one thing that we have insisted upon more than another in these studies in citizenship, it is that the only way for a community to prosper is by all its members working together for the common good of all. We have pointed out that we have adopted the representative principle, by which we join with all the others in the community in the election of representatives, who speak and act for us in all matters of government, that the laws these representatives make are our laws, and that, being our own laws, we are bound to obey them. It follows that, if we do not obey these laws, we are shirking our responsibilities as members of the community and working against, instead of with, our fellows. *Obedience to the law and respect for authority is the distinguishing mark of a good citizen.*

Let us examine a little further into this question of obedience to law. We may sometimes feel that a certain law presses hardly upon us and needlessly interferes with our

personal liberty. But is this any reason for our breaking that particular law? If we ourselves refuse to obey a law that we dislike, why may not other citizens also try to evade laws which appear to them to be harsh and unnecessary? If every man were a law unto himself, how long would our governments last? How long would our community hold together? Whether we object to a law or not, we must, as members of the community working with all the other members, obey it loyally, so long as it is part of the law of the land.

The remedy is in our own hands. The law we object to was made by our representatives, and, if we are not satisfied with the actions of those representatives, we have it in our power to remove them and put others in their places, provided we can convince our fellow-citizens that injustice is being done.

Hand in hand with obedience to law goes respect for authority and for those in authority. This means only that we must respect ourselves, because we ourselves constituted that authority, and we are responsible for the election of those in authority. It is no reason for abusing or speaking slightingly of men holding public office that our votes did not help to place them where they are. Our system of government is dependent upon the rule of the majority, and we are bound, if government is to continue, to fall in with the greater number.

There is a further way in which a citizen may give loyal support to his government. Laws must be obeyed, and it is the duty of the good citizen not only to obey these laws himself but to see that others also obey them. In aiding the authorities in this way, a citizen is neither a tale-bearer nor a sneak. The citizen who insists that others shall obey the law is simply upholding the authority of government and helping to make it more respected in the community.

The Duty of paying Taxes.—We have learned from our study of taxation that the members of the community must pay for the almost innumerable services performed for them by our several governments. We have also seen that the taxes are apportioned so that, as far as possible, each citizen will pay neither more nor less than his just share. Again, we must keep in mind that the taxes imposed by our governments are really imposed by ourselves, and that it is our duty to pay our share of the general taxation cheerfully and willingly with the knowledge that the benefits we receive are far greater than the money we have to pay for them. Why should we enjoy protection for our life and property, the use of streets and highways, and the advantages of education, and at the same time seek to avoid paying for them? We do not act this way in our private business. Why should we attempt to act otherwise in relation to public business? The man who evades the payment of his fair share of taxation is enjoying all the benefits of government at the expense of others and is really cheating the entire community.

The Duty of military Service.—In addition to obeying the law and paying our just share of taxation, there is another way in which we can support our governments, and that is in helping to defend our country, should this be necessary. When we think of the hundreds of thousands of Canadians who took up arms during the Great War for the purpose of defending a just cause, and when we think of the work done both abroad and at home by the tens of thousands of women who had sent their fathers, brothers, and sons to the front, it seems hardly necessary to talk about our duty in regard to military service. We should simply remember that it is our duty as citizens of Canada to be prepared to give up even our lives in defence of our own country. We have already said that as Canadians we hate

war, but circumstances may arise which may make it necessary to take up arms. If such should ever happen, we should be ready to answer the call.

The Duty of Voting.—We must never forget that the government of our country, our province, and our municipality is our government, and, as such, we are each one of us personally responsible for its honesty and effectiveness. Consequently, when the opportunity comes, as it does from time to time to elect our representatives in one or other of these governments, it is our duty to take part in these elections, so that, so far as we are concerned, the best men or women, and only the best men or women, in the community shall be selected to represent us. In order that we may decide intelligently on the merits of those who present themselves at the election, we must make a close study of the questions that are before the public and consider carefully the attitudes of the various candidates towards these questions.

Let us make up our minds as to which of the men or women for whom we have to vote are the most honest, the most intelligent, the most capable, the most faithful, the most willing, and cast our vote accordingly. If our governments are dishonest, it is we who will have to pay for this dishonesty. If they are inefficient, the burden will fall upon us. If they make mistakes, through lack of intelligent forethought, it is we who will have to suffer.

It is not a great hardship to spend an hour or so two or three times a year in casting our ballot for honest, intelligent representatives. It may be that our ballot will decide the election, or even the fate of some great public question. We say that we have the right to vote; then, let us exercise that right. But of one thing we should assure ourselves: we have no right to rail against our governments, or to find fault with them, unless we have done our utmost to see that

only those who are capable of carrying on government are entrusted with the task. In the last analysis, we are responsible for the kind of government we have. It has been well said that a government is never any better or any worse than the community that it serves.

The Duty of Office-holding.—It follows from what we have just said regarding the duty of each citizen to take an intelligent part in elections, that we should one and all be willing to act as representatives of the people, if so requested by our fellows. Many men and women of intelligence and ability are averse to taking part in public affairs, not only because it may interfere with their private business but also because they feel that their efforts will not be appreciated by the public, and that, no matter what they may do, they will receive nothing but abuse from a section of the people. But it is men and women of talent and ability that the community needs, and if we feel that we are qualified to serve the public well and honestly, we should not hesitate to accept public office—no matter at what sacrifice to ourselves. The money rewards of such service are not great, but the citizen who discharges the duties of the office he has undertaken to the best of his ability, with honesty of intelligence and effort, will feel that he has earned his reward in the consciousness of work well done and in the benefits he has conferred upon the public.

The Duty of jury Service.—Somewhat similar to the duty of holding public office is that of serving on a jury. We have already pointed out how important trial by jury is in safeguarding our liberties, and it is our duty, even at a personal sacrifice of time and money, to assist in maintaining the high standard of this most important institution. If the intelligent, upright men of the community are constantly seeking to evade jury service, how long will the confidence of the public in the jury system be maintained? The posses-

sion of valuable property, and frequently the lives of our fellow citizens, may depend upon the decision rendered by a jury, and, if those who are best equipped to render a just verdict are not present, it is very possible that injustice may be done. It is only at very infrequent intervals that jury service is demanded of a citizen, and the good citizen will stand ready to render that service.

The Duty of keeping Healthy. —We have already pointed out the various ways in which our governments guard the health of the people. But these governments can accomplish little, unless every member of the community lends his aid. It is important that all the health laws laid down by our governments should be obeyed, and it is also important that we should in every way assist the authorities in carrying out these laws. We can guard ourselves and our families against contagious diseases by obeying the laws governing quarantine, and by insisting that others should obey them. But, there is another way in which we can help, and that is by looking after our own personal health.

Rudyard Kipling in a poem written for the Boy Scouts writes:

"There is one lesson at all Times and Places,
One changeless truth in all things changing writ,
For boys and girls, men, women, nations, races;
Be fit—be fit! And once again be fit!"

A recent writer in commenting on this poem says: "Bodily fitness is essential to life, for cleanliness, purity, and vigor of physical life is the basis of everything that is worth having and enjoying. All else counts for very little in the absence of health and strength, for, just as a man cannot shoot with a bad gun, so neither can anyone fulfil his duties aright, if he is not physically fit in all things that concern daily needs." So, if we are to gain for ourselves the best

that is in life and give of our best to the community, we must do all in our power to preserve our own bodily health and vigor.

Our Duty as Pupils.—Lastly, those of us who are in the school-room should ask ourselves what our duty is in return for the benefits that we receive. We have our seats in a comfortable classroom, we are being taught by a teacher employed by representatives of the people and paid out of taxes raised by the people, and we are receiving an education, so that we may have a chance to make a success of our lives and in the future may take our proper places in the community. Is it not our duty to make use of the opportunities so freely and so willingly given us by doing our best in the work in which we are engaged?

Questions and Suggestions

1. If we do not obey the law what is the consequence to ourselves? What is the effect on the community? Can you think of any law that appears to work a hardship on you? Why did the majority of the people approve of that law? Why should we respect authority? What is meant by "respect?"

2. Re-read the chapter on *Taxation*, and from it pick out as many reasons as you can for the payment of taxes. If all the people in the community refused to pay taxes, what would be the result?

3. Why is it necessary that every citizen should vote? What is meant by "the right to vote" and "the sacredness of the ballot"? Why should every intelligent citizen be willing to hold public office? Should the office seek the man or the man seek the office?

4. What is meant by the following: "the spirit of fair play," "the square deal," "equal opportunities for all, special privileges for none," "all men are born free and equal," " eternal vigilance is the price of liberty," "we owe it to ourselves and to our country," "government of the people, for the people, and by the people"?

5. Write a short composition on "The Good Citizen in Time of War."

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

POWERS OF THE DOMINION

By the British North America Act the following powers are assigned to the Dominion:

(1) The public debt and property: (2) the regulation of trade and commerce: (3) the raising of money by any mode or system of taxation: (4) the borrowing of money on the public credit: (5) postal service: (6) the census and statistics: (7) militia, military, and naval service, and defence: (8) the fixing of and providing for the salaries and allowances of civil and other officers of the government of Canada: (9) beacons, buoys, lighthouses, and Sable Island: (10) navigation and shipping: (11) quarantine and the establishment and maintenance of marine hospitals: (12) sea coast and inland fisheries: (13) ferries between a province and any British or foreign country, or between two provinces: (14) currency and coinage: (15) banking, incorporation of banks, and the issue of paper money: (16) savings banks: (17) weights and measures: (18) bills of exchange and promissory notes: (19) interest: (20) legal tender: (21) bankruptcy and insolvency: (22) patents of invention and discovery: (23) copyrights: (24) Indians and lands reserved for the Indians: (25) naturalization and aliens: (26) marriage and divorce: (27) the criminal law, except the constitution of the courts of criminal jurisdiction, but including the procedure in criminal matters: (28) the establishment, maintenance, and management of penitentiaries: (29) such classes of subjects as are expressly excepted in the enumeration of the classes of subjects by this Act assigned exclusively to the Legislatures of the provinces.

APPENDIX B

Powers of the Provinces

By the British North America Act the following powers are assigned to the provinces of Canada:

(1) The amendment from time to time, notwithstanding anything in this Act, of the constitution of the province, except as regards the office of Lieutenant-Governor: (2) direct taxation within the province in order to the raising of a revenue for provincial purposes: (3) the borrowing of money on the sole credit of the province: (4) the establishment and tenure of provincial officers and the appointment and payment of provincial officers: (5) the management and sale of the public lands belonging to the province, and of the timber and wood thereon: (6) the establishment, maintenance, and management of public and reformatory prisons in and for the province: (7) the establishment, maintenance, and management of hospitals, asylums, charities, and eleemosynary institutions in and for the provinces, other than marine hospitals: (8) municipal institutions in the province: (9) shop, saloon, tavern, auctioneer, and other licenses, in order to the raising of a revenue for provincial, local, or municipal purposes: (10) local works and undertakings, other than such as are of the following classes: (a) lines of steam or other ships, railways, canals, telegraphs, and other works and undertakings connecting the province with any other or others of the provinces, or extending beyond the limits of the province: (b) lines of steam ships between the province and any British or foreign country: (c) such works as, although wholly situate within the province, are before or after their execution declared by the Parliament of Canada to be for the general advantage of Canada or for the advantage of two or more of the provinces: (11) the incorporation of companies with provincial objects: (12) the solemnization of marriage in the province: (13) property and civil rights in the province: (14) the administration of justice in the province, including the constitution, maintenance, and organization of provincial courts, both of civil and of criminal jurisdiction, and including procedure in civil matters in those courts: (15) the imposition of punishment by fine, penalty, or imprisonment for enforcing any law

of the province made in relation to any matter coming within any of the classes of subjects enumerated in this section: (16) generally all matters of a merely local or private nature in the province.

APPENDIX C

Voting at Dominion Elections

The following are the instructions issued by the Chief Electoral Officer for the guidance of voters in Dominion elections:

Each voter may vote only at one polling station and for only one candidate, unless two members are to be returned for the electoral district, in which case he may vote for one or for two candidates as he thinks fit.

The voter will go into one of the compartments, and, with a black lead pencil there provided, place a cross within the white space containing the name of the candidate for whom he votes, thus X.

The voter shall then fold the ballot paper so that the initials and stamp on the back and the number on the counterfoil can be seen and the counterfoil detached without opening the paper; he shall then return the ballot paper so folded to the deputy returning officer, who shall, in full view of those present, including the voter, remove the counterfoil, destroy the same, and place the ballot paper in the ballot box. The voter shall then forthwith quit the polling station.

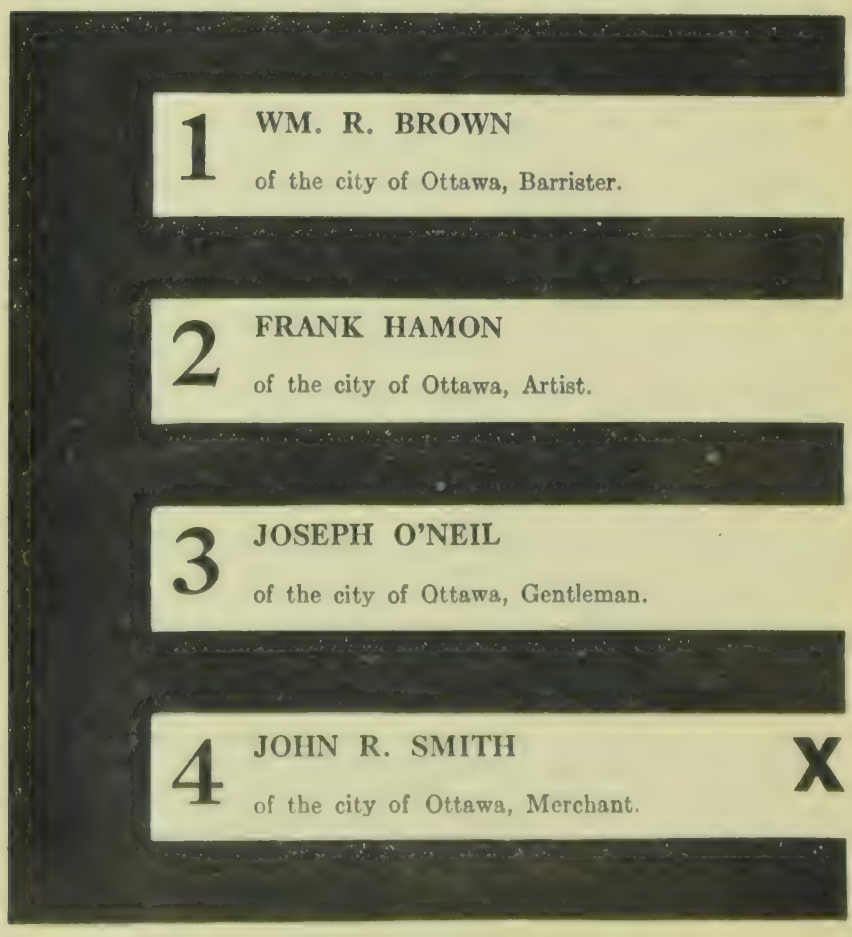
If a voter inadvertently spoils a ballot paper, he may return it to the deputy returning officer, who, on being satisfied of the fact, will give him another.

If a voter votes for more candidates than he is entitled to vote for, or places any mark on the ballot paper by which he can afterwards be identified, his vote will be void and will not be counted.

If the voter fraudulently takes a ballot paper out of the polling station, or fraudulently delivers to the deputy returning officer to be put into the ballot box any other paper than the ballot paper given him by the deputy returning officer, he will be disqualified from voting at any election for seven years thereafter and be liable, if he is a returning officer, election clerk, deputy returning officer, poll clerk or other officer

engaged in the election, to imprisonment without the alternative of a fine for a term not exceeding five years and not less than one year, with or without hard labor, and if he is any other person, to imprisonment for a term not exceeding three years and not less than one year with or without hard labor.

In the following form of ballot paper, given for illustration, the candidates are Wm. R. Brown, Frank Hamon, Joseph O'Neil, and John R. Smith, and the voter has marked his ballot paper in favor of John R. Smith:



APPENDIX D

Naturalization

To qualify for naturalization an alien must be twenty-one years of age or over. He must have lived within His Majesty's Dominions for a period of not less than five years or have served under the Crown for at least five years during the last eight years, and must also have resided in Canada for not less than one year immediately preceding his application for naturalization. He must be of good character and must possess an adequate knowledge of either the English or the French languages. He must also declare his intention either to reside in His Majesty's Dominions or to enter or continue in the service of the Crown.

An alien desiring to be naturalized must apply in the county or district in which he resides for a decision that he is qualified to be naturalized under the provisions of the Imperial Naturalization Act to any Judge of any Superior Court or to any Judge of any Circuit, District, or County Court. On a form procured from the Clerk of the Court he must give written notice of application, setting forth his qualifications. This notice, on which the Clerk is required to write the probable date when the application will be heard in court, must then be posted in the office of the Clerk for three months, in order that persons having objections to the alien may register them.

After the three months have elapsed, the application comes up in court, and if no good reasons for refusal are advanced, the papers are forwarded to the Secretary of State. If the Secretary of State sees fit, he issues a Certificate of Naturalization, which is sent to the Clerk of the Court to whom the application was made. The applicant is then required to take the oath of allegiance, after which he receives from the Clerk of the Court his Certificate of Naturalization.

The fee for naturalization is five dollars and must be paid to the Clerk of the Court when the notice of application is given. The fee for taking the oath of allegiance is fifty cents.

Women, if single, widowed, or divorced may be naturalized. The wife of an alien automatically becomes a British subject upon the naturalization of her husband but cannot be natur-

alized by herself during his lifetime. A woman who, having been a British subject, marries an alien, becomes herself an alien. The children of an alien who are under twenty-one years of age also become naturalized upon the naturalization of their father, if they are resident in Canada and are named in their father's certificate.

No one who is a criminal or is opposed to organized government can be naturalized in Canada, nor can a subject of any country with which Canada is at war become a Canadian citizen during hostilities.

INDEX

Absentee voting, 222.

Accidents, industrial, 131, 142.

Accuracy, importance of, 65.

Act, 190.

Administration of justice in British Columbia, 243-255; necessity for laws, 243-244; various kinds of laws, 245-246; courts of law, 246-247; county courts, 249-250; Court of Appeal, 250; Exchequer Court of Canada, 251; Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, 251-252; Privy Council, 250; Small Debts Courts, 249; Supreme Court of Canada, 250, 252; Supreme Court of British Columbia, 249, 250, 253; court procedure, 252-254; effect of court decisions, 255; justices of the peace, 247-248; police magistrates, 248-249; stipendiary magistrates, 248-249.

Administrative work of government, 149.

Adulteration, of cattle feed, 50; of drugs, 50; of fertilizers, 50; of food, 26; of seeds, 50.

Agriculture, 87-90; government and agriculture, 48; Minister of Agriculture, 175; Department of Agriculture, British Columbia, 212-213; Minister of Agriculture, British Columbia, 207.

Air—necessity for pure air, 22; regulations regarding supply of air in factories, 23.

Alberta, formation of province, 159; population, 166; representation in House of Commons, 166; representation in Senate, 170.

Aldermen, 231.

American Revolution, 152, 155.

Annual Supply Bill, 192-193.

Anti-toxins, 30.

Appeal, Court of, 250.

Appeals, 247.

Appearance, 252.

Appropriation Bill, 192-193.

Arbitration, 130.

Archives, British Columbia, 209.

Arrest, false, 277.

Assessor, village, 241.

Assizes, 254.

Associations, aesthetic, 76; athletic, 77, 78; welfare, 71.

Attorney-General for Canada, 174; of British Columbia, 207, 212, 254; Department of Attorney-General, British Columbia, 210, 211, 225.

Auditor-General, 196; Auditor of Disbursements, British Columbia, 212; Auditor of Revenue, British Columbia, 212.

Bail, 253.

Baldwin, Robert, 154, 229.

Ballot paper, Dominion, 290; directions for marking, 182, 183.

Banks, 111; government inspection, 50; notes or bills, 111, 113.

Bargaining, collective, 124.

Barter, 109.

Bell, Alexander Graham, 120.

Big Brother Association, 73, 78.

Big Sister Association, 73, 78.

Bill, true, 254.

Bills, bank, 111; bills of exchange, 111; government bills, 189-193;

money bills, 189, 191; approval of bills by British government, 198.

Bird life, conservation of, 98.

Black Death, the, 32.

Blacklisting, 133.

Blind, training of the, 72.

Board of Commissioners in British Columbia villages, 241; of Lumber Commissioners, British Columbia, 217; of governors, University of British Columbia, 265; of Health, British Columbia, 216; of School Trustees, 258-259, 260, 264.

Bonus system, 128.

Boy Scouts, 73.

Boycott, 132.

British Columbia, province of, 156, 159; population, 166; representation in House of Commons, 166; representation in Senate, 170; see also *Administration of Justice in British Columbia, Education in British Columbia, Government of British Columbia, Municipal Government in British Columbia;* University of British Columbia, 265-267.

British North America Act, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 165, 180, 191, 194, 198, 199, 203, 224, 272, 287-289.

Brown, George, 157.

Budget speech, Dominion, 192; British Columbia budget, 207.

Business colleges, 75; business enterprises, 141; business institutions, 16; business life, 79; business tax, 273.

By-elections, 184.

Cabinet, 148-150, 164, 172-180; cabinet system, 148; coalition Cabinet, 172; harmony in Cabinet, 178; cabinet ministers, 173, 174; powers and duties, 185.

Cable, Atlantic, 120.

Canada—government, see *Government of Canada;* Province of Canada, 156, 157, 158; Dominion of Canada, formation of, 159.

Canadian Clubs, 74.

Canadian Girls in Training, 70, 73.

Canadian National Institute for the Blind, 72.

Canadian National Railways, 118.

Canadian Pacific Railway, 118, 224.

Canals, 119; Minister of Railways and Canals, 174.

Capital, combinations of, 50, 106, 124; definition of, 122; capital and labor, 122-133; arbitration, 130; blacklisting, 133; boycott, 132; causes of dispute, 124-126; closed shop, 126; collective bargaining, 124; conditions of labor, 123, 125, 129, 142; employers and workers, 122; hours of labor, 123; improved relations, 127-130; Lemieux Act, 133; open shop, 126; picketing, 133; protective legislation, 130-132; recognition of the union, 125; strikes and lockouts, 126-127; trade unions, 122, 124; union label, 133; wages, 123, 124, 128, 132, 142.

Cartier, Georges E., 157, 158.

Censorship, of advertising matter, 51; of moving pictures, 51; of printed matter, 51; of theatres, 51.

Census, 165.

Centralization of plants, 104, 105.

Charlottetown Conference, 156, 157.

Cheque, 111.

Chief Electoral Officer, 181; Chief Justice, 186, 250.

Child labor, 31.

Children's Aid Society, 57.

Church, as an institution, 16, 68; the church in the past, 68; today, 68; importance of the church, 69; the church and

citizenship, 68-70; and social conditions, 4.

Citizen, duties of, see *Duties of Citizen.*

Citizenship, requirements for, 48; training for, 62; citizenship and the family, 53-57; and the church, 68-70; and the school, 58-67; and other social institutions, 71-78; and conservation, 99; see also *Rights of citizen* and *Duties of citizen.*

Civil cases, 252-253; civil law, 246; civil service, 177; Civil Service Commission, 178; civil service, British Columbia, 208; Civil Service Commission, British Columbia, 210, 217.

Claim, statement of, 252.

Clerk, House of Commons, 168, 186; Senate, 171; Legislative Assembly, British Columbia, 205; village clerk, British Columbia, 241.

Closed shop, 126.

Coal, methods of mining, 94.

Collector, village, 241.

Colonial government, 151.

Colonization—Minister of Immigration and Colonization, 175.

Commerce—Minister of Trade and Commerce, 175.

Committees of the House, 193; Committee of the Whole House, 168, 189, 192, 193; Committee of Supply, 193.

Committing for trial, 253.

Common law, 245.

Commons, House of, see *House of Commons.*

Communicable diseases, 28, 29.

Communication, 86, 109-121.

Community, definition of, 9; living in communities, 6-13; working together, 6-7; how communities grew up, 7-8; the social instinct, 8-9; origin of communities in Canada, 9-11; how living in communities improves people, 12-13; importance of home to the community, 57; promoting health of community, 21-33; economic life of community, 79-146; political life, 147-285; social life, 1-78; community singing, 76; community school districts, British Columbia, 258, 260.

Compensation Acts, 130, 218; Boards, 131, 218.

Companies, formation of, 107, 124.

Comptroller-General, British Columbia, 212.

Concentration and centralization of plants, 104.

Confederation, 155; Fathers of, 157, 159, 162, 169.

Conservation, definition of, 90; conservation of bird life, 98; of fisheries, 96; of forests, 91; of minerals, 94; of natural beauty, 98; of soil resources, 89; conservation and citizenship, 99.

Conservative Party, 172, 176.

Consolidated fund, 196.

Constituencies, 167.

Constitutional Act, 154, 155.

Corporations, formation of, 124.

Councillors, 231.

Councils, city, 231; municipal councils in British Columbia, 232, 264; meetings and conduct of business, 233-235; Council of Public Instruction, British Columbia, 258, 260, 263.

Court procedure, 252-254; effect of court decisions, 255.

Courts of law, 246-247; county court, 249, 253; Court of Appeal, 250; Court of Revision, British Columbia, 221; Court of Revision, municipal, 232; Exchequer Court of Canada, 251; Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, 251-252; Privy Council, 250; Small Debts Courts,

249; Supreme Court of Canada, 250, 252; Supreme Court of British Columbia, 249, 250, 253.

Credit, 110.

Crimes, 246.

Criminal cases, 253–254; criminal law, 246; punishment of criminals, 3.

Cross-examination, 253.

Current account, 112.

Customs—Minister of Customs and Excise, 174.

Debentures, British Columbia municipal, 235–236.

Debts—Small Debts Court, 249.

Defence, 252; national defence, 47.

Defendant, 252.

De Montfort, Simon, 148.

Departments of public service, Dominion, 173-176; British Columbia, 208-218.

Deputy Governor-General, 186; Deputy Minister in British Columbia government, 209; Deputy Returning Officer, in Dominion elections, 182, 183, 184; in provincial elections, British Columbia, 220; Deputy-Speaker, House of Commons, 168, 189; Legislative Assembly, British Columbia, 205.

Director of Elementary Agriculture, British Columbia, 257; Director of Technical Education, British Columbia, 257.

Disallow, power to, 163, 198, 199.

Disbursements—Auditor of Disbursements, British Columbia, 212.

Discount, bank, 112.

Disease, protection against, 275; communicable diseases, 28.

Dominion of Canada, formation of, 159; government, see *Government of Canada;* powers of Dominion, 161–162, 287; Dominion Elections Act, 184.

Draft, 111.

Drainage schemes, 49, 90.

Drugs, adulteration of, 50; sale of harmful drugs, 51.

Durham, Earl of, 155; Durham Report, 155.

Duties of citizen, 274, 279–285; as pupils 285; in forming habit of thrift, 47; duty of jury service, 283-284; of keeping healthy, 284–285; of military service, 281–282; of obedience to law, 279–280; of office-holding, 283; of paying taxes, 281; of voting, 282-283; toward conservation of bird life, 99; toward conservation of forests, 93; toward fire protection, 39; toward libraries, 36; toward police, 42; toward protection of public property, 42; toward public health, 29.

Economic activities, 86; economic life of the community, 79–146.

Education, importance of, 59, 66, 134, 137; right to good education, 278; educational institutions, 34, 75; see also *Schools* and *Universities;* education in British Columbia, 256–267; educational system, 256–257; finance of school system, 261–264; school districts, 258–260; normal schools, 264–265; special schools, 260–261; University of British Columbia, 265–267; Council of Public Instruction, 258; Department of Education, 216, 257; Minister of Education, 207, 257; Superintendent of Education, 257, 263; Assistant Superintendent of Education, 257; Director of Technical Education, 257.

Edward I, 148.

Elections—the general election, 180–185; voters, 184; instructions for voters in Dominion elections, 289-290; by-elections, 184; provincial elections in British Columbia, 218, 219–222; municipal

elections in British Columbia, 232–233.

Electoral districts, 166.
Elementary school inspectors, British Columbia, 257.
Elgin, Earl of, 155.
Empire Clubs, 74.
Employers, 122.
Employment agencies, 216.
Enoch Arden, 8, 9.
Estimates, 192.
Exchange, 109; bills of, 111; medium of, 110; exchange of goods, 84, 86.
Exchequer Court of Canada, 256.
Excise—Minister of Customs and Excise, 174.
Execution of judgment, 255.
Executive work of government, 149; Executive Council, British Columbia, 203, 207-208, 212, 218, 219, 223, 258.
Expenditure, Dominion, 194–197.
Extractive industries, 86–101: wealth, 86; economic activities, 86; agriculture, 87–90; fishing, 95–96; fur industry, 96–97; lumbering, 90–93; mining, 93–95; water-powers, 97–98; conservation of natural beauty, 98; conservation of bird life, 98–99; conservation and citizenship, 99–100.

Factory acts, 5; air supply in factories, 23; factory inspection, 216.
Faculties, University of British Columbia, 265, 267.
Family Compact, 155.
Family as an institution, 15; family life, 79; family and citizenship, 53–57; government and the family, 56; importance of the home, 56–57.
Farmers' Institutes, 49.
Farming, 87.
Federal union, 157.
Fenian Raids, 158, 163.
Field, Cyrus W., 120.
Filtration, 23.
Finance, Minister of, 174, 192; Minister of Finance, British Columbia, 207, 211, 212.
Fire protection, 39; Fire-Marshal Act, British Columbia, 210.
Fisheries, conservation of, 96; Minister of Marine and Fisheries, 174.
Fishing, 95.
Flies, as disease carriers, 27.
Food, adulteration of, 26; inspection of, 26; necessity for pure food, 24.
Foreign affairs, control of, 199–200.
Foresters, the, 75.
Forests, conservation of, 91.
Fraser River bridge, 215.
Fraternal societies, 74, 78.
Fraud, punishment of, 49.
Free speech, right to, 275-276.
Freedom from false imprisonment, 276-277; freedom of the press, 5; of worship, 276.
Frontage tax, 271.
Fur industry, 96.

Game Act, British Columbia, 210.
Games, importance of, 65, 77.
Garbage, disposal of, 27,277.
Gas, natural, 95.
Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod, 171, 186, 187.
Girl Guides, 73.
Glorious Revolution of 1688, 148, 150.
Golden rule, 64.
Government, definition of, 18, 21; as an institution, 16; kinds of, 19; what government does for us, 16, 17, 20–52; government

and adulteration, 50; and agriculture, 48-49; and athletics, 77; and banks, 47, 50; and censorship, 51; and child labor, 31; and combines, 50; and communicable diseases, 28–30; and dust on streets, 28; and education, 33–38; and the family, 56; and fraud, 49–51; and garbage, 27–28; and good roads, 49; and health institutions, 31–32; and immigration, 48; and the individual, 20–21; and insurance companies, 50; and law-breakers, 42–44; and law courts, 50; and monopolies, 50; and mothers' allowances, 56; and music, 37; and national defence, 47–48; and neglected children, 56; and observance of Sunday, 51; and police, 40–41; and postal system, 46–47; and protection of life and property, 38–45; and public health, 21–33; and public libraries, 35–36; and public morals, 51; and public museums, 37; and public parks, playgrounds, etc., 30; and public works, 45–46; and pure air, 22–23; and pure food, 24–26; and pure water, 23–24; and safety regulations, 40; and sale of intoxicating liquor, 51; and sale of tobacco to children, 51; and schools, 34–35, 51, 58, 59; and sewage, 26-27; and thrift, 47; and traffic regulations, 40; and weights and measures, 50; other activities of government, 30–31, 45–52.

Government of Canada, 147–201; bills, 189–193; British system of government, 147–151; by-elections, 184–185; Cabinet and its duties, 148–150, 164, 172–180, 185; civil service, 177–178; colonial government, 151–153; committees of the House, 193; confederation, 155–163; departments of public service, 173–176; dissolution of Parliament, 180-181; divided and disputed powers, 162–163; expenditure, 195-196; fields of government, 147; general election, 180–185; Governor-General, 163–165; House of Commons, 165–168; Leader of the Opposition, 176–177; money bills, 191–192; necessity for definition of powers, 159–160; opening of Parliament, 185–189; Parliament, 148; Parliament of Canada, 163–171; powers of Dominion, 161–162, 287; powers of provinces, 160–161, 288–289; Privy Council, 179; procedure in Parliament, 185–194; prorogation of Parliament, 190–191; relationship with mother country, 197–201; representative principle, 147–148; responsible government, 151–155; restrictions in government, 197–201; revenue, 194–195; Senate, 169–171; supply bill, 192–193; voters, 184.

Government of British Columbia, 202–226; departments of public service, 208–218; Department of Agriculture, 212–213; of Attorney-General, 210; of Education, 216, 257; of Labor, 215–216; of Lands, 211; of Mines, 214; of Provincial Secretary, 209–210; of Public Works, 214–215; of Railways, 215; Treasury Department, 211–212; special boards and commissions, 216–218; elections, 219–222; Executive Council, 207–208; Legislative Assembly, 205–207; Lieutenant-Governor, 203–205; political parties, 218–219; Province of British Columbia, 202; revenue, 223–226; voting, 220–222; see also *Municipal government in British Columbia*.

Governor-General, 163, 164; powers and duties of, 170, 171, 172, 173, 177, 179, 180, 181, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193, 198, 255.

Grand Jury, 254.

Grants to British Columbia by Dominion government, 224.

Great Plague in London, 32.

Great Rebellion, the, 148.
Grey, Earl, 155.
Gyro Club, 73.

Habeas corpus, 276; Habeas Corpus Act, 279.
Hansard, 194.
Health, duty of citizen toward, 284–285; importance of, 21; inspection in schools, 31; Minister of Health, 174; public health in British Columbia, 209; Board of Health, British Columbia, 216; Public Health Officer, British Columbia, 217; public health in British Columbia municipalities, 240; Municipal Board of Health, 240; Municipal Medical Health Officer, 240.
Hearing, preliminary, 254.
High school inspectors, 257.
Highways, construction of, 49, 116, 119.
Home, importance of, 56; home and the school, 58.
Honesty, importance of, 65.
Hospitals, 31.
House of Commons, 148, 163, 164, 165; bills, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193; general election, 180; officers of, 168; opening of, 186; procedure, 185–191; provincial representation in, 166; requirements for election to, 167; Speaker, 184.
House of Lords, 148, 163, 252.
Housing conditions, 277.
Howe, Joseph, 154.
Hudson Bay Territory, 156, 159.
Hudson's Bay Company, 109, 156.

Immigration, regulations regarding, 48; Minister of Immigration and Colonization, 175.
Imperial Conferences, 200.
Imprisonment, right to freedom from false, 276–277.
Indemnity, Dominion, 168; British Columbia, 205, 223.
Indian Affairs, Superintendent-General of, 175.
Industrial corrective schools, 34, 44; industrial revolution, 104.
Industries—Agriculture, 87; extractive industries, 86–101; fishing, 95; fur industry, 96; lumbering, 90; manufacturing, 86, 102–108; mining, 93; primary industries, 87; trade, transportation, communication, 109–121; Department of Industries, British Columbia, 216; Minister of Industries, British Columbia, 207.
Industry in school, 64.
Information, 253.
Insect inspection, 49.
Inspector of Municipalities, British Columbia, 240, 241; inspectors of elementary schools, 257; inspectors of high schools, 257.
Institutions, 14–19; definition of, 15; aesthetic associations, 76–77; associations and clubs, 16; athletic associations, 77–78; business associations, 16; the church, 16, 68–70; educational institutions, 34, 75–76; see also *Schools*; the family, 15, 53–57; hospitals, 31; the school, 16, 58–67; welfare associations, 71–73; other associations and social service, 73–75; other social institutions and citizenship, 71–78.
Insurance—government inspection of insurance companies, 50.
Interior, Minister of the, 175.
International trade, 115.
Interprovincial trade, 115.
Irrigation, 49, 90.

Jail farms, 44.
Judges, 244, 245; of County Courts, British Columbia, 249; of Supreme Court, British Columbia, 249, 250; of Supreme Court of Canada, 250.

Judgment, 253.
Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, 198, 251–252.
Jury, 253, 254; Grand Jury, 254; Petit Jury, 254; duty of jury service, 283–284; right to trial by jury, 277.
Justice, Minister of, 174; chief-justice, 250; see also *Administration of justice in British Columbia.*
Justices of the peace, 247–248.

King, the, 163, 164; King-in-Council, 251.
Kipling, Rudyard, 4.
Kiwanis Club, 73.
Knights of Columbus, 75; of Pythias, 75.

Labor, definition of, 122; conditions of, 3, 123, 125, 129, 142; division of, 8, 104, 105; hours of, 3, 123, 125; unions, 4, 16, 122; see also *Capital and labor*; Minister of Labor, 175; Department of Labor, British Columbia, 215; Minister of Labor, British Columbia, 207; Labor Party, 172, 176.
Lafontaine, Louis, 154.
Land Registry Offices, British Columbia, 210.
Lands, Department of Lands, British Columbia, 211; Minister of Lands, British Columbia, 207, 211.
Law, obedience to, 279–280; Law Clerk, Legislative Assembly, British Columbia, 205; civil law, 246; common law, 245; criminal law, 246.
Law-breakers, punishment of, 42.
Law courts, 50, 210, 246–247.
Laws, necessity for, 243–244; various kinds of, 245–246.
Leader of the Opposition, 176.
League of Nations, 200.
Legislative Assembly, British Columbia, 203, 205, 218, 223; election of members to, 219; officers of, 205; procedure in, 205-207.
Legislative work of government, 148.
Lemieux Act, 133.
Lessons of history, 1–5.
Liberal Party, 172, 176.
Libraries, public, 35; school, 263; travelling, 36.
Library, British Columbia Provincial, 209.
Licence fees, provincial, British Columbia, 225; municipal, British Columbia, 237.
Lieutenant-Governor, British Columbia, 203–205, 210, 219, 248, 255; Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, British Columbia, 208, 212, 216, 217, 220, 239, 240, 241, 247, 248.
Life, protection of, 38–45, 274–275.
Lions Club, 73.
Liquor, government control of, 51; Liquor Act, British Columbia, 210, 217, 225; Liquor Control Board, British Columbia, 217.
Lockouts, 126.
Lower Canada, 154, 156.
Lumber Act, British Columbia, 217; Board of Lumber Commissioners, British Columbia, 217.
Lumbering, 90.

Macdonald, John A., 156, 157, 158.
Mackenzie, William Lyon, 154.
Magistrates, police, 248–249; stipendiary, 248–249.
Magna Carta, 5.
Mail delivery, 46; service, 120.
Manitoba, province of, 159, 166, 170.
Manufacturing, 102–108; changes in, 103–104; importance of, 102–103; industries, 86; centralization and division of labor, 105–106; com-

binations of capital, 106–108; production of wealth, 102.
Manure, danger from, 27.
Marconi, 120.
Marine and Fisheries, Minister of, 174.
Markers, 110.
Masons, 75.
Mayor, 231.
Meat, inspection of, 26.
Medical Health Officer in British Columbia municipalities, 240.
Medium of exchange, 110.
Merchandizing, definition of, 109.
Military service, 47, 281–282.
Militia, 47.
Milk, inspection of, 24; pasteurizing, 25; sterilizing, 26.
Minerals, conservation of, 94.
Mines, Minister of, 175; Bureau of Mines, British Columbia, 214; Department of Mines, British Columbia, 214; Minister of Mines, British Columbia, 207, 214; Provincial Mineralogist, British Columbia, 214.
Minimum Wage Act, British Columbia, 215.
Mining, 93.
Ministers, cabinet, 173, 174; Minister in British Columbia government, 203; Minister of Agriculture, British Columbia, 207; Minister of Education, British Columbia, 207, 257; Minister of Finance, British Columbia, 207, 211, 212; Minister of Industries, British Columbia, 207; Minister of Labor, British Columbia, 207; Minister of Lands, British Columbia, 207, 211; Minister of Mines, British Columbia, 207, 214; Minister of Public Works, British Columbia, 207, 214–215; Minister of Railways, British Columbia, 207; salary of Minister in British Columbia, 208.
Money, 109; money bills, 191, 207.
Monopolies, 50, 107.
Morals, public, 51.
Morse, Samuel B., 120.
Mosquitoes, 27.
Mothers' allowances, 56; Mothers' Pension Acts, 57; Mothers' Pensions Act, British Columbia, 218.
Motor Vehicle Act, 210.
Municipal government in British Columbia, 227–242; assessment and taxation, 237–239; borrowing by debenture, 235–236; by-laws, 231, 234; city and district municipalities, 231; communities and local self-government, 227–228; council meetings and conduct of business, 233–235; elections, 232–233; municipal councils, 232, 264; municipal finance, 235–239; police, 239–240; provincial control of municipalities, 240 – 241; public health, 240; village municipalities, 241; who may vote, 232–233.
Municipal school districts, 258–260, 262, 264.
Municipalities Incorporation Act, 230; Inspector of Municipalities, British Columbia, 240.
Museums, public, 37; British Columbia Provincial Museum, 209.
Music, government aid to, 37.

National defence, 47; Minister of National Defence, 175.
Natural beauty, conservation of, 98.
Natural resources, 86; control of, 225
Naturalization, 48, 291–292.
Navy, 48.
Neatness, importance of, 65.
Needs, growth of, 14; physical, 79; private, 83; public, 83; see also *Wants*.
Neglected children, government aid for, 56.

New Brunswick, province of, 156, 157, 158, 159, 166, 170.
Newfoundland, 156, 157, 158, 159.
New Westminster, 215, 261.
Nominations, 181, 182, 220.
Normal schools, 34, 264–265.
North-West Territories, 195.
Nova Scotia, province of, 154, 156, 157, 158, 159, 166, 170.

Obedience, necessity for, 53; in school, 62; to law, 279–280.
Occupation, finding an, 134–146; business enterprises, 141–142; change in ideas of occupations, 135; changed conditions in industry, 138–140; competition, 144; considerations in choice of occupation, 142–145; narrowing the choice, 136–137; necessity for making a choice, 135–136; need for better preparation, 137–138; occupations of men and women, 140–141; sources of help in choosing, 136; value of education, 134–135.
Oddfellows, 75.
Office-holding, duty of, 283.
Oil, production of, 95.
Ontario, province of, 159, 166, 169.
Open shop, 126.
Opposition, Leader of the, 176; Opposition Party in British Columbia, 218.
Orangemen, 75.
Order-in-council, 179, 208.
Organization, definition of, 84.
Ottawa, 250.

Papineau, Louis Joseph, 154.
Pardons, 255.
Parliament, definition of, 148; development of parliamentary system, 148; Parliament of Canada, 163–165; Cabinet, 164; Governor-General, 163, 164; House of Commons, 165; the King, 164; Senate, 164; procedure in Parliament, 185–194; opening of Parliament, 185; prorogation of Parliament, 190; dissolution of Parliament, 180; committees of the House, 193; bills, 189–192.
Parole, 43.
Patriotism, 64.
Patronage system, 177.
Penitentiaries, 43.
Perseverance, importance of, 65.
Petit Jury, 254.
Petition of Right, 150.
Physical needs, 79.
Picketing, 133.
Plaintiff, 252.
Point Grey, 265.
Police, 40; Provincial Police, British Columbia, 210; Superintendent of Provincial Police, 239; municipal police, British Columbia, 239–240; Board of Commissioners of Police, British Columbia municipalities, 239; police magistrates, British Columbia, 248–249.
Political life of the community, 147–285.
Poll book, 183; Poll Clerk, 182; poll tax, 238–239.
Polling, 181, 182;
Postal system, 46, 120.
Postmaster-General, 174.
Powers, of the Dominion, 287; of the provinces, 160, 288–289.
Prairie Provinces, public lands of, 195.
Preliminary hearing, 254.
Premier, 149, 172, 173, 174, 176, 181, 188; Premier of British Columbia, 208, 219; salary of Premier of British Columbia, 208.
President of the Council, British Columbia, 207, 208.

Presiding Officer, British Columbia provincial elections, 222.

Price control, 107.

Prime Minister, see *Premier*.

Prince Edward Island, province of, 156, 157, 158, 159, 166, 170.

Prison reform, 5.

Privy Council, 174, 179, 250; Judicial Committee of, 251–252.

Procedure, in Dominion Parliament, 185–194; in Legislative Assembly, British Columbia, 205–207; court procedure, 252–254.

Profit-sharing, 128.

Progressive Party, 172, 176.

Promissory note, 110.

Property, protection of, 38–45, 274–275; tax, 270–271.

Protection, against disease, 275; of life and property, 38–45, 274–275.

Protective legislation for labor, 130, 133.

Provinces, powers of, 160, 288–289.

Public accounts, British Columbia, 211, 212; public debt, Dominion, 196; public debt, British Columbia, 223–224; health, 21, 240; libraries, 35; morals, 51; museums, 37; schools, 34; services, 83; departments of public service, Dominion, 173; British Columbia, 208–218; Public Health Officer, British Columbia, 217; Council of Public Instruction, British Columbia, 258, 260, 263; public utilities, 118; public works, 45, 223; Minister of Public Works, 175; Department of Public Works, British Columbia, 214–215; Minister of Public Works, British Columbia, 207, 214–215.

Punctuality, 64.

Pupils, duty of, 285.

Purchasing Agent, British Columbia, 212.

Pure milk, 277; water, 277.

Quarantine regulations, 29.

Quebec, province of, 159, 166, 170, 205; Conference, 157; scheme, 158.

Questions and suggestions, 5, 13, 19, 32, 37, 44, 51, 57, 67, 70, 78, 85, 100, 108, 121, 132, 145, 150, 155, 163, 171, 180, 185, 193, 197, 201, 226, 241, 255, 267, 273, 278, 285.

Railways, construction of, 117; Canadian railways, 117, 118, 224; electric railways, 118; suburban railways, 118; Minister of Railways and Canals, 174; Department of Railways, British Columbia, 215; Minister of Railways, British Columbia, 207.

Raw material, 86.

Rebellion Losses Bill, 155.

Reciprocity treaty, 158, 163, 197.

Recount, 183.

Red Cross Society, 73, 78.

Reeve, 231.

Reform Bill, 5, 151.

Reforestation, 91.

Registrars, 184; Provincial Registrar, British Columbia, 209.

Relationship of Dominion with mother country, 197–201; restrictions in government, 197; reasons for restrictions, 199.

Religious life, 79.

"Rep by Pop," 163.

Representative principle, 147; selecting representatives, 18.

Resources, natural, 86; conservation of soil resources, 89.

Responsible government, 150–153.

Restrictions in government, 197; reasons for, 199.

Returning Officer, Dominion elections, 181, 182, 184; provincial elections, British Columbia, 220; municipal elections, British Columbia, 233.

Revenue, Dominion, 194–197; provincial, British Columbia, 223–226; municipal, British Columbia, 235–239; Auditor of Revenue, British Columbia, 212.

Revising Officer, 184.

Revision, Court of, 221.

Revolution, American, 152, 155; industrial revolution, 104.

Rights of citizen, 274–279; right to free speech, 275–276; to freedom from false imprisonment, 276–277; to freedom of worship, 276; to good education, 278; to healthful surroundings, 277–278; to protection against disease, 275; to protection of life and property, 274–275; to trial by jury, 277; respecting rights of others, 63, 64; Bill of Rights, 5.

Roads, construction of, 49, 116, 119.

Robinson Crusoe, 8, 9.

Rotary Club, 73.

Royal Canadian Mounted Police, 47.

Royal Military College, 48.

Rural school districts, British Columbia, 258, 260, 262, 264.

Safety regulations, 40.

Sales tax, 270.

Salvation Army, 78.

Sanitoriums, 32; Tranquille, 240.

Saskatchewan, province of, 159, 166, 170.

Savings department of bank, 111.

School, as an institution, 16; importance of, 59, 66; school and citizenship, 58–67; and government, 58–59; and the home, 58; and occupations, 134; what we study in school, 60–62; why we have school, 59–60; compulsory attendance, 51, 59; school life, 79; school districts, British Columbia, 258–260, 262, 264; school inspectors, British Columbia, 257; school libraries, British Columbia, 263; finance of school system in British Columbia, 261–264; school trustees, British Columbia, 259, 260, 264.

Schools, health inspection in, 31; kinds of, 34; agricultural, 49; correspondence, 75; normal schools in British Columbia, 264–265; special schools in British Columbia, 260–261; see also *Education.*

Scrutineers, 182.

Search warrant, 277.

Secretary of State, 175; Secretary of State for External Affairs, 174; Provincial Secretary, British Columbia, 207; Department of Provincial Secretary, British Columbia, 209–210.

Seignorial tenure, 155.

Self-control, 65.

Self-government in communities, 227–229.

Select Standing Committees, 193.

Senate, 164, 169; officers of, 171; representation in, 169; requirements for appointment to, 170; Senate Chamber, 186, 187; bills in Senate, 189, 190, 191, 193.

Senate, University of British Columbia, 265.

Senators, 169.

Sentence, 253, 254.

Sergeant-at-arms, Dominion, 168; Legislative Assembly, British Columbia, 205.

Services, public, 83.

Sewage disposal, 26, 277.

Sheriff, 255.

Shop, closed, 126; open, 126.

Sinking fund, 236.

Slavery, abolition of, 5.

Small Debts Courts, 249

Social instinct, 8; social life of the community, 1–78.

Soil resources, conservation of, 89.
Soldiers' Civil Re-establishment, Minister of, 174.
Solicitor-General, 176
Speaker, House of Commons, 168, 184, 187, 188, 189; Senate, 171, 187; Legislative Assembly, British Columbia, 205.
Speech from throne, 188, 189, 206.
Sports, importance of, 65, 77.
Statement of claim, 252.
Statutes, 190, 245.
Stephenson, George, 117.
Sterilizing milk, 26.
Stipendiary magistrates, 248-249.
Stockholders, 107.
Street cleaning, 277
Strikes, 126; strike-breakers, 126.
Studies, school, 60.
Subsidy, Dominion, 224.
Suburban railways, 118.
Succession duties, 272.
Suffrage, woman, 5.
Suggestions, see *Questions and suggestions.*
Summons, 253.
Sunday, regulations for observance of, 51.
Superintendent-General of Indian Affairs, 175.
Superintendent of Education, British Columbia, 257, 263; Superintendent of Provincial Police, British Columbia, 239.
Supply, Committee of, 193; supply bill, 192–193.
Supreme Court of Canada, 250, 252; of British Columbia, 249, 250, 253.
Sydenham, Lord, 155.

Taxation, 194–195, 268–273; direct, 195; indirect, 194–195; necessity for, 268; forms of, 268–270; income tax, 271–272; inheritance tax, 272–273; property tax, 270–271; sales tax, 270; other direct taxes, 273; provincial taxes in British Columbia, 225–226; municipal taxes in British Columbia, 236–239; duty of paying taxes, 281.
Team work, importance of, 66.
Technical schools, 34.
Telegraphy, 120.
Telephone, 120.
Tennyson, Lord, 9.
Terms of Union, 202.
Thrift, habit of, 47.
Tilley, Samuel Leonard, 158, 160.
Time-payment, 124.
Tobacco, regulations regarding sale to children, 51.
Trade, transportation, and communication, 109–121; advantages of trading, 115–116; how trade has developed, 114–115; banks, 111–113; credit, 110–111; merchandizing, 109; money, 109–110; Minister of Trade and Commerce, 175.
Trade unions, 122.
Traffic regulations, 40.
Trail, 261.
Trail Rangers, 70, 73.
Tranquille Sanitorium, 240.
Transportation, 86, 109–121; definition of, 84; in Canada, 116; modes of, 116–120.
Treasurer, village, 241.
Treasury Board, British Columbia, 212; Treasury Department, British Columbia, 211–212, 225.
Trent affair, 156, 163.
Trial in court, 252–255; by jury, 277.
Tribe, life of, 2–3, 7–8.
Truthfulness, importance of, 65.
"Try-out" experiences, as aid in choosing an occupation, 137.

Tuberculin testing of cows, 25.
Tupper, Charles, 158, 159.
Tuxis Boys, 70, 73.

Union Act, 156, 163; federal union, 157; Terms of Union, 202.
Unions, trade, 122; recognition of union, 125; union label, 133.
Universities, 34; University of British Columbia, 265–267.
Upper Canada, 154, 156.

Vancouver, 230, 250, 261, 265; Vancouver Island, 156.
Verdict, 254.
Victoria, 250, 261, 265.
Victorian Order of Nurses, 73, 78.
Village municipalities, British Columbia, 241.
Voters, in Dominion elections, 184; voters' list, for Dominion elections, 182, 184; for provincial elections, British Columbia, 220–221; for municipal elections, British Columbia, 232.
Voting, duty of, 282–283; at Dominion elections, 289–290; at provincial elections, British Columbia, 220–222; qualifications for voting in British Columbia, 220–221; absentee voting, 222; voting in municipal elections, British Columbia, 232–233.

Wages, 3, 123, 124, 128, 216; a consideration in choosing an occupation, 142; bonus system, 128; minimum wage, 132; Minimum Wage Act, British Columbia, 215; piece method, 128; profit-sharing, 128; time-payment, 124.
Wants and their satisfaction, 79–95; development of modern methods, 84; how wants increase, 82–83; making a living, 80; private needs, 83; public needs, 83; world of work, 79–80.
Warrant, 253; search warrant, 277.
Water—necessity for pure water, 23; regulations regarding supply of, 23; transportation by, 119.
Water-powers, 97.
Ways and Means, Committee of, 193.
Wealth, definition of, 86; production of, 102.
Weed inspection, 49.
Weights and measures, inspection of, 50.
Welfare associations, 71; work, 73.
Wireless telegraphy, 120.
Witnesses, 253.
Woman suffrage, 5.
Women, occupations of, 140.
Women's Institutes, 49.
Workers, 122.
Working together, 6, 16, 17, 54; in school, 62–66; in social service, 75.
Workmen's Compensation Act, 130; in British Columbia, 218; Workmen's Compensation Board, British Columbia, 218.
Worship, freedom of, 276.
Writ, 252.
Writs of election, 181.
Written law, 245.

Young Men's Christian Association, 16, 73, 76.
Young Women's Christian Association, 16, 73, 76.
Yukon Territory, 166.